"THE HEART OF THE VILLAGE"

What determined the spatial distribution of North Canterbury Rural schools 1850-1940?

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A.M.F. Davies

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ABSTRACT

When the Province of Canterbury was established by the Canterbury Association its founders looked at the English system of education and saw many of its problems. Education was seen as a panacea for many of the ills of the 19th century but the system in Britain was dependent on the churches, and with the increasing population and rural-urban migration the system became overloaded. A factor which saw state involvement become essential. As the Canterbury founders wanted to avoid importing many of the British problems education was seen as a high priority.

This thesis looks at how the state influenced the development of the education system in the North Canterbury Education Board region, as defined in 1900, over the period of 1850 to 1940. With the spatial distribution of elementary schools and their effects on the community being of particular interest.

In Canterbury while the initial momentum originated from the aims of the founders, the rural communities took the initiative and following meetings, and some Education Board funding, they founded area schools. Attention is paid to the school as the "heart of the village" and its use for many non-educational purposes. These included utilisation as the post-office, the library, the museum and the entertainment, social and sporting centre. A special look is taken at the

transport advancements which led to the loss of services in many rural areas and thus the loss of population and a decline in school rolls. This in turn led to the beginning of the school bus service in 1924 and the acceleration of the closure of many small schools as a system of consolidations took place.

Many of the changes in the spatial distribution of schools in the North Canterbury region were due to the actions of the state in the passing of various regulations the first and most pivotal during the period studied, 1850-1940, being that of the 1877 Education Act. This was followed by many others, the most important dealing compulsory attendance, another factor influential in changing the map of schools in the region.

From this study it can be seen that the school was regarded as being the most important feature of the community. Regardless of age or religious beliefs everyone was able to have an interest in it and the school acted as a unifying factor for the district.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

> "To be ignorant of what occured before you were born is always to remain a child. For what is the worth of human life, unless it is woven into the life of our ancestors by the records of history?"
>
> Cicero

Over the years the discipline of geography has under gone many changes. It was long regarded, by the general public, as the learning of the spatial positions and names of global features both natural and man-made, e.g. rivers, mountains, seas and cities. Today the attitude has changed and geography has matured to encompass studies of the total spectrum of natural and human activity and the consideration of the effects of those activities in both the historical and present contexts. Overtime the effects of human actions can encompass a wide range of areas from the physical modification of the natural environment to that of the individual's internal space. To understand how a community or region has reached the form it presents today the historical geographer attempts to detect and explain the processes which have occurred, usually between two points in time. this thesis looks at the geographic effect of one set of actions carried both by the state and individuals within a geographic and administrative region. The process concerned being that of the distribution of rural elementary schools over a period of approximately 90 years, with particular reference to school openings and closings.

In a way similar, to that of geography, the subject of education has evolved greatly over the years. From the study of what is taught, by whom and to whom, to include the broader aspects of where and under what circumstances the knowledge is being disseminated. This change also involves the results of the actions of government and individuals, and it is here that the geographic link is made in this thesis. Educationalists began, in the period between the wars, to realise that many of the areas that geographers studied e.g. environmental and spatial factors, could have a major effect on learning abilities and educational outcomes. One such factor being the placement of schools within a suitable environment both in the urban and rural sectors.

In any geographic or educational study it is important to consider research within the general subject heading and that of inter-related subjects e.g. sociology and psychology. In any subject new research builds upon that of others within the field, taking it to new levels and asking on-going research questions, but in order to advance scholarship a good knowledge of previous work is required. Although many geographers, such as Liz Bondi, have looked at educational subjects little research has been undertaken to determine the spatial distribution of an education system within a geographic or political region. Studies in recent years,in both education and geography, e.g. Bowles and Gintis, have dealt with various aspects of education in relation to the factors of opportunity and social mobility, but unfortunately

these have focused, in the main, on the urban environment. In rural studies the writers and researchers, e.g. Parkyn (1952), have focused on the administration of the schools, their design, the teaching methods and curriculums. It is the subject of spatial distribution in the rural sector that few geographers have tacked, and even less attention has been paid to that of the historical geography of education.

Geographers, e.g. Bondi and Badcock, who have dealt with educational matters have focused on the urban sector with little if any mention of how their research findings apply to the rural situation. Badcock, like Simons, did study the outcomes of the spatial placement of schools. Both studies considered the effect of residential segregation on education, a factor known as the 'neighbourhood effect' and demonstrated its results on the pupils of selected schools in their respective cities. Over recent years, with the introduction of 'Reaganomics' and 'Thatcherism', many studies such as that of Baron, have looked at the geographic variations in school financing and the restructuring of state activities particularly those involving school closures. Much of this research has been carried out to show as Pinch says "that this state of affairs if undesirable..." (Pinch, 1989. p.905)[1] or in Badcock's and also in Simons' cases to point out the effects of inequalities in the education system.

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[1] While dealing with restructuring in the hospital system in Great Britain, much of Pinch's work is applicable to the education sector.

While those pieces of research are excellent in their fields they do show major deficiencies in not extending beyond the confines of the city. Little attention has been paid to the problems of the rural schoolchild, especially in the historical context. Another neglected area, and the main focus of this thesis, is the opening of schools. Work has been carried out looking at school closures and school reorganizations, e.g. Sher and Tompkins (1977), but the only works which do specifically talk of school openings are those dealing with either the geographic history of an area, e.g. Hart (1948) and Dykes (1948), or the educational history of a region, e.g. Breward (1930). While as expected a number of educational history and pure history publications and theses mention school openings they do not go beyond the level of the facts that the school opened on a certain date, who was the teacher and how many pupils were on the roll. They, e.g. Oxford (1929) and Sinclair (1927), do not give any information regarding the reasons for the opening or siting of the schoolroom within the community and little if any mention of any state involvement. This thesis will partially fill this gap in both the geographic and educational history of rural schools.

THESIS OBJECTIVES

1. To study the nature of state involvement in rural education.
2. To identify the reasons for state involvement
3. To look at the types and methods of state involvement in rural education

4. To show the spatial distribution of rural schools in a given geographic and administrative region.

5. To identify the reasons for that distribution with special reference to

    a. Political factors

    b. Population changes

    c. Social pressures

    d. Regulations, statutes and by-laws

    e. Transport developments

6. To answer the question : What effect the placement of the school had on the community?

The state, in what ever form, permeates all areas of human life. Some involvement is direct via the levying and collection of taxes or the supply of services, and indirectly by way of the imposition of a multitude of statutes, laws and regulations. The first objective of this thesis is to study the involvement of the state in rural education. Karl Marx said "that all history is the history of class struggle" (Baker, 1982. p. 1935) and he showed that this class struggle is demonstrated across all stratifications of society and among all socio-economic levels. The development of an education system involves this factor of struggle as, in the past, the upper levels of society have strived to maintain it as their weapon to retain social dominance.

While education was initially the domain of the church, once the industrial revolution was established and the upper classes began to profit from the effects of better education for everyone, the state saw an opening to additional power.

This power was based on the opportunity to pass on to the lower class enough education to allow the further accumulation of wealth for the upper classes and the state. Katz sees elementary education for the working class as essentially "a middle-class imposition, designed to control urban populations". As Green states, however, this may have worked in some urban areas but it is too great a generalization to apply in rural areas (p. 35), which prior to the huge rural-urban migrations, of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, contained the majority of the population. With the falling populations rural communities were unable to sustain their own educational facilities and so they called on the government, many already regarded education to be the sole responsibility of the state, to aid them.

The types and methods of state involvement in rural education ranged from the direct, e.g by way of finance, teacher training and the setting of curriculums, to the indirect involving such items as those of the provision of school transport and the general upgrading of the transport system. In any state system regulations, statutes and by-laws are part of the political framework of education. These range from local school body rules, which deal with minor day to day administrative matters, to those of the local council which cover such items as school access. At the state level the regulations are more sweeping and involve all aspects of education, such as the curriculum, compulsory attendance and

more relevantly the financing and siting of the schools.

Little study has been undertaken looking at the spatial distribution of rural schools or the reasons for that distribution. While this thesis will be looking at the siting of rural schools in a specific region, the factors involved will be applicable to many rural regions throughout the world. Those factors include the influence of governmental functions by way of the effects of individual and political ideologies. In some cases this may be through the desire of a person wishing to begin or continue a political life and the need to be seen to be aiding the wishes of the electorate. With regard to political ideologies, some early politicians, who had good private school backgrounds, believed that everyone had a right to be educated to highest level of their ability and they had a desire to see that carried out. Others saw education as a political weapon to ensure that it acted, as Durkheim believed, as a vehicle of social integration through the transmission of culture. Also as an opportunity for the ruling classes to keep control and as some believed to aid in the curbing of crime and a fast rising birthrate.

Population movement is also an element in the distribution of schools. The first important factor is population spread, as a region develops and prospers people move into the district and, if the growth is localized on for example one industry, a town will develop. Wilson also says that

> "A report of the opening of the Kimberley school, in Canterbury, shows that such was the common experience in many isolated districts, where, ..., a school becomes a centre and that from it gradually a district springs up".
> (Wilson, 1949. p.89)

This is somewhat debatable. In the same way as the old conumdrum of 'which came first the chicken or the egg?' it is very hard to quantify the school as being prior to the district, what is true however is that the establishment of a school did draw more people into a small community. This may however have involved other variables.

If the variable is regional in nature, e.g. the discovery of a new resource, then a number of small communities are often established. This movement is usually characterized as being either by those of childbearing age or young families wishing to establish themselves. In a working community, as prosperity grows, so does the number of young children, although this generalization does not usually apply to the upper and middle classes or the more highly educated, hence the need for an expanding school system. Many other factors may also affect population flows, a major economic depression sees many of those of working age, especially males, move to other areas to find work. While a post war period usually sees a substantial jump in birthrates and again an increase in the demand for school places.

The third reason to be discussed is that of social pressures. It has already been mentioned, under the political heading,

that some politicians were pressured on the question of school provision, by their electors. While for many rural people the education itself was the over-riding factor, for others the arrival of a school was a statement that here was a permanent settlement in which they could put down roots. There was also the pressure of the need for better education to either escape the rural life or to understand the new technologies and practices being introduced into agriculture and horticulture.

Apart from the question of school openings this work will also be looking at some of the reasons behind the school consolidations and closures. An important element, especially in the rural situation, is that of transport developments. The routing of the railway system saw the near death of some by-passed smaller centres while others, on the routes, grew rapidly. These fluctuations meant that school rolls fell, often dramatically, or rose and so schools opened and closed over short period of time. With the arrival of the motor vehicle and the upgrading of the roading system it meant that travel became faster, cheaper and more comfortable and its effect on the rural sector was seen rapidly. For small communities travelling to another school was often cheaper and seen as beneficial as the 'economies of scale' were brought into place.

The final aim of this thesis is to look at whether the siting of a school had any effect on the introduction, in the

community, of other services. It is known that changes in transport had a major effect on available services in small communities as travel to larger centres with more varieties of services and goods became easier and quicker. But what of the period prior to those changes?

CHAPTER TWO

THE THEORY OF EDUCATION AND THE STATE

> "Instruction or training by which people (generally young) learn to develop and use their mental, moral and physical powers"
> (Webster, 1989. p.298)

INTRODUCTION

This chapter serves to look at the research and writing on the involvement of the state in the establishment of public services, particularly with regard to geographic and educational factors. A large range of works are reviewed and the theories they put forward are looked at with regard to the focus of this thesis.

The first part looks, very briefly, at the background of education, followed by the nature and causes of state involvement and the interactions of structure and agency in general terms. From this general area the geographic theory is brought out with reviews of studies undertaken by geographers with an emphasis on educational services provided by the state. The final section looks at theoretical work undertaken in New Zealand and educational research and publications.

BACKGROUND OF EDUCATION

Since the days of Plato the teaching of others in the fashion of formal schooling has been seen as important, in part to allow the passing on of ethnic and religious history and

beliefs and in part to foster forward thinking and development. In the past when an adversary wanted to conquer or destroy a nation or race they would first try to eliminate its educated core. In this way with the educated hierarchy, to whom the masses looked for leaders now gone the nation was demoralised and easily overcome. The first guardians of the school were the priests who provided education for a special elite class their purpose being to encourage their pupils to join holy orders. With the church being the repository of books in the form of hand written manuscripts, what was taught was oral and "the chief faculty exercised was that of the memory" (Smyth, 1914?. p.9)

With the invention of the printing press, books could be easily and cheaply reproduced in large numbers. As they became more widely distributed so did the demand for literacy and so it can be said that "it was the book which made the school necessary" (Smyth, 1914?. p.10). It was, however, still the wealthy landowning classes who benefitted from these printed books and schools, as many of the rural poor needed to spend most of their time working to obtain a subsistence living.

This notion of education as the exclusive domain of the upper classes continued into the late 17th and early 18th centuries. In Europe, the industrial revolution was well established and a certain level of education was required for all workers. For many of the "working class", education was seen as the way of escaping from the dankness and squalor of

the crowded European industrial cities; for rural labourers as a way of earning extra money to purchase their own properties or to move to a 'better life' in the cities.

NATURE OF STATE INVOLVEMENT

In the discipline of education and geography the majority of theoretical and critical scholarship has been carried out in recent years. This is true of how the paradigms of geography have changed over the years from observation with little hypothesis testing through the period of the 'quantitative revolution' and the model building theoretical approach. The 'social welfare' approach has been described by David Smith as, "a study of geography round the theme of social welfare as a study of who gets what, where and how" (Dimick, 1978. p.12). Over the last twenty years this 'social welfare' approach has been used by geographers to study such subjects as crime, e.g. *The Geography of Crime : A Political Critique* (Peet, 1978), socio-economic distribution, e.g. *The Redistribution of Real Income in an Urban System* (Harvey, 1978), and public policy, e.g. *Geography and Public Policy* (White, 1978). Each one of these studies uses the welfare theme to enable the four tasks of geography - description, explanation, evaluation and prescription - to be "applied to a particular human problem" (Dimick, 1978. p.12).

In a critical work on the history of the state school in New Zealand Roy Skuker quotes Poulantzas as saying

> "...facts can only be rigorously comprehended if they are explicitly analysed with the aid of a

> theoretical apparatus constantly applied through out the text." (p.9)

While this is ideal, when studying older works the reader has to realise that in the same way that historical facts are constantly being updated, so the various theories are being changed over time. Historians of fifty years ago, commenting and applying the theories of the 1930s and 40s to their specialist areas, appear, to the eyes of the 1990s historian, to have missed some major points which cry out for analysis and criticism.

Although written in the nineteenth century, the works of Karl Marx (1818-1883), which spawned the Marxist movement, continue to play an important role in modern theory. In the pre-Marxist period education was seen as a tool for breaking barriers to upward social mobility. Marxism, however, sees education as a method by which the upper classes attempt to retain the system and therefore ensure that there will always be a labouring element in society to maintain production and to make a profit for capitalist owners. They see part of the duty of the schools, in a capitalist society, as attempting to reproduce the social classes, i.e. keeping those from the lower classes at that level by teaching the children only what they need to know to maintain their level, but enough to allow for 'factory' production advances to be made to ensure more profit.

Another theorist, who saw the education system as legitimising the hierarchical relations between social groups

or classes, was Bourdieu (Skuker, 1987. p.24). This he sees as being achieved by the teaching of the dominant group's system of values, norms and language and being further demonstrated by the awarding of attainment certificates gained through the school examination system. He then points out that this can be quickly verified by a review of the system the results of which would show that the cultural capital possessed by a group or class usually remains within that group (Skuker, 1987. p.24).

While the Marxist view is still very relevant it concentrates largely on the economic aspects of education. Since the 1960s many theorists have looked at both current and historical education as serving "the interests of the dominant groups in society" (Skuker, 1987. p.18). In New Zealand this is seen as the domination of the white European culture and ethic systems over those of the Tangata whenua. French sociologist Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) saw education as having two major functions. The first to "provide the skills needed for industrial economics" and secondly, and "more essentially to act as a vehicle of social integration through the transmission of culture" (Green, 1990. p.36). While the first function is still accepted as being necessary, the second is heavily criticised, as many now see this transmission of culture as one of the most undesirable functions of education. This is especially true in areas of the world where colonialism has occurred as it is the dominant culture, usually that of the colonisers, which is seen as being that transmitted. Durkheim saw it as social integration but today

most native peoples would describe it as being social destruction or isolationism for their cultures and languages.

Since this period education has been the subject of a large volume of studies and theories. Some, such as *Education and State Formation* by Andy Green, have looked at education in regard to the involvement of the state, e.g. Bondi (1987). Others have looked from the level of the individual, e.g. De Young and Theobald, or from that of the community's point of view as did Tony L. Williams in his article looking at the one-room schools of West Virginia, U.S.A.

This factor of state involvement can varied historically from country to country and from society to society. In some instances the central government, although regarded as having a moral duty to provide education, shied away from this 'duty' and left it to the churches or local governments. Today the nature of state involvement in education includes decisions on the types of schools, the pupil-teacher ratio, what facilities to provide and importantly where the schools should be built (Johnston, 1982. p.232). In most states it also controls the content and nature of the curriculum and this is seen as being the principle area of social control and cultural dominance.

In the United States mass education developed alongside 'democratic' republicanism and was underlined by a wide consensus of support from all classes (Green, 1990. p.35-36). In other parts of the world the push for better education

came, on the whole, from below with the state having to react or face anarchy. There was increasing disillusionment with the church and its hierarchy and so while previously much of the responsibility had rested on the shoulders of the religious sector it was quickly realised that they could no longer carry the burden. After the take-over of the bulk of education provision by the state, although in most cases it was a slow process, there was often a flurry of activity in the establishment of new facilities as governments attempted to build up what was often a weak and scattered system.

As the economies and population distributions changed the decisions on rationalisations, school closures and consolidations had to be made. This area of the geography of education has been studied by several researchers, the best work probably being that by Liz Bondi on the reorganization of schools in Manchester in the north of England. She found that the state, in the form of the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), tended to push the burden of school closures on the inner city areas where the communities were less powerful and therefore unable to fight the decisions. While Bondi's study examines an urban area many of the factors involved hold similar significance for rural areas.

The LEAs saw many groups formed to defend their local schools but they were interested in individual schools as opposed to the overall plans. In the final analysis the changes made to the plans were in favour of the wealthy suburbs, with the poorer inner cities loosing out completely. A similar

situation occurs in the rural sector where the population is scattered and overall has less power and influence with the state organisations. As Lonsdale and Enyedi (1984) stated, rural areas are "forever trying to play a 'catch-up' game" with the more advanced urban areas. Catching up with the cities was difficult for most country areas and some of the differences can be identified by the following definition, "rural areas [at least in the USA] are identified as having lower per-capita incomes, lower tax revenues, more limited employment opportunities and a weaker political vote" (p.3).

This rural weakness varies greatly between societies and also across time. As the migration from the rural to the urban sectors increased with industrialisation so did the differential between the provision of public services in the two areas. For many countries manufacturing replaced agriculture as the main export money earner and much of the so called 'new money' saw education in terms of a way of increasing profits and keeping social order. These outcomes of education are only part of the equation, Ishumi (1984) showed the two sides of the process in his diagram (see figure 2-1). The demand factor comes from the social pressures of population distribution and the age group structures within a community or society. It also comes from the desires of the state "to ensure that economy and society operate to the benefit of the capitalist class" (Johnston, 1982. p.20).

The inputs are in the main provided with state aid or

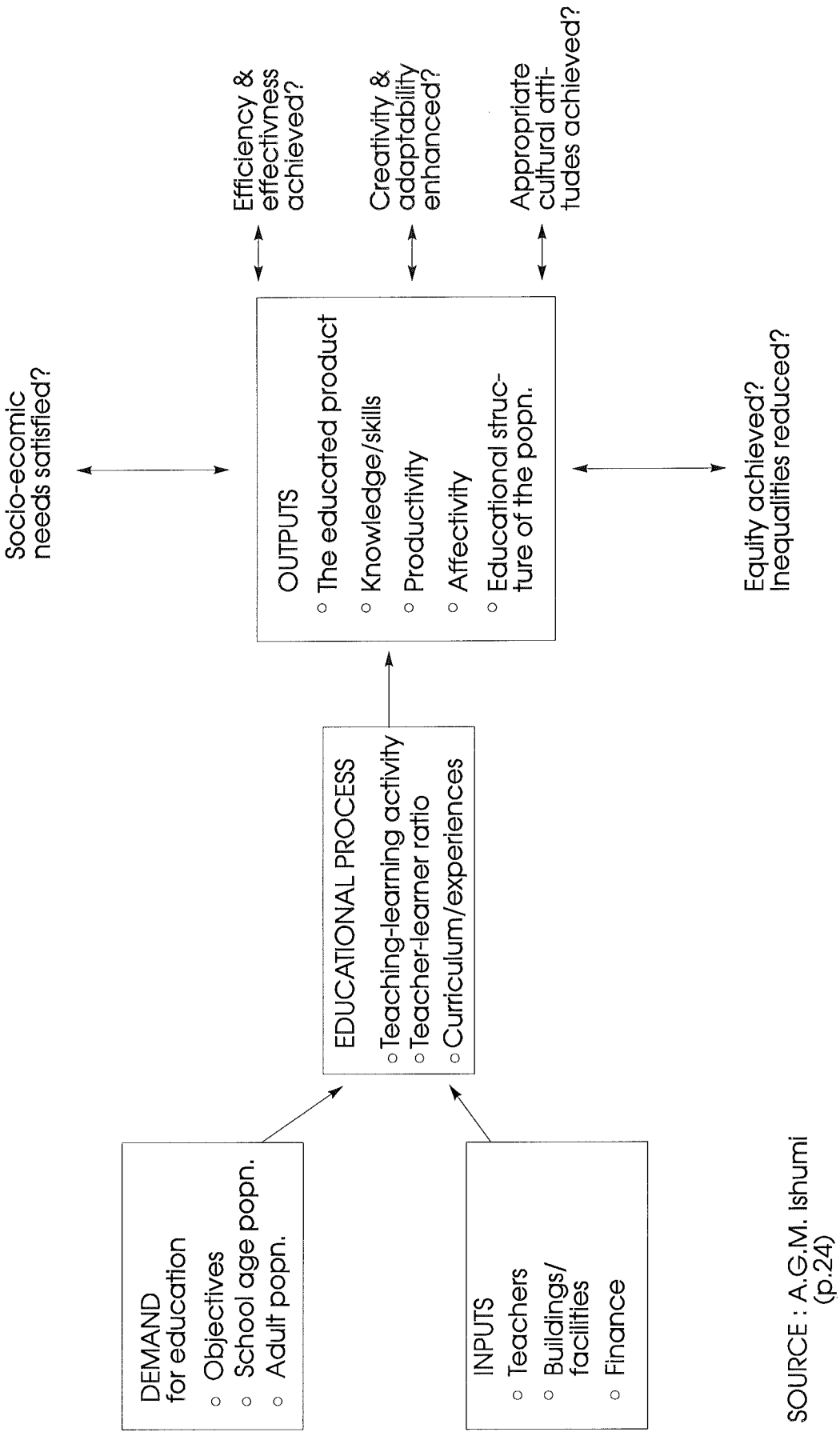

FIGURE 2-1 : The two sides of system processing in education

directly by the state. Teachers are trained in state institutions to teach, in most cases, a curriculum set by the central education powers. The building and facilities are usually state owned and provided, with much of the finance for the running and maintenance of the schools being provided from taxes which are collected and distributed by the government. While these inputs are empirical, the outputs are, in the main, less easily defined and require some study regarding the question of why provide education.

This can be partly answered by what R.J. Johnston called structure and agency and their interactions. The structures are the bases which constrain the agents or individuals, although often this is not consciously realised. Marx said "people make their own histories but not in conditions of their own choosing" (Johnston, 1991. p.51) and this is where the structures operate. They are usually set up by the state but in examining these over time, and their interactions with the agents who can be characterised as either individuals or small groups, changes in the levels and strength of the structures can be seen.

Figure 2-2 shows a schematic representation of the development of structure and agency in regard to education in the Canterbury region over part of the period under study in this thesis.

Over the period the lines from the structure or state grew stronger as more rules and compulsion was placed into law,

while that from the agency weakened as the education system grew and individuals appeared to become content with it. Although rules were in place it is true to say that "the extent of compliance, however, will depend upon the incentives and disincentives which bear on schooling decisions" (Mason and Suits, 1982. p.5). These decisions were usually made by individuals and families or by the leadership and social pressure from others within the immediate community. The structure is usually described as being the state, however in reality it can also centre on cultural or social dimensions and constraints and the agency can be an individual or a group of individuals. As Mason and Suits say

> "Government policy is not created in a vacuum, but is subject to the same incentives and disincentives - albeit with less force - as are individuals and families" (p.5)

The constraints on governments can be derived from forces outside the country, e.g. a poor economic performance putting limits on the monetary supply, or internal especially where a decision can cost valuable votes at an upcoming election.

CAUSES OF STATE INVOLVEMENT

Part of this returns to the question posed before with regard to the reasons for education. The answer can vary according to societal beliefs and the time period looked at. As was brought out in the opening of the chapter education was initially for the wealthy and elite and used by the church as a method to recruit new members for the holy orders. Later many of the upper and land owning class saw education for their employees and tenants as the social responsibility of

their position in society. This paternalistic attitude continued, for the rural dwellers, well into the industrial era.

Education was also used by the government to aid social order. Many of the early theorists saw a link between poverty, ignorance and undesirable habits, especially crime and a lack of education. Many people believed that with the raising of educational standards and levels, crime would decrease and almost disappear as the young people had other things to do and learnt moral and social credos. Another area of social control was seen as that of education to help in keeping the birthrate at an acceptable level. In many parts of the world, where there was little or no education, the population was expanding at a faster rate than could be sustained and proving difficult for many states to manage.

Mention was made of the factor of class, cultural domination and the reproduction of the system. This is demonstrated by the 'neighbourhood effect'. Cliff Simons completed a thesis in 1980 which showed how this effect operated in Christchurch schools and tertiary institutions. He showed that the area where a pupil lived and went to school helped to determine academic performance as well as future ambitions and prospects. Liz Bondi similarly found that most schools serve particular neighbourhoods so that the social makeup of the school is a factor affecting all pupils and staff and that "this implies that the neighbourhood may affect the educational achievement of children" (Bondi, 1988. p.9-10).

While this does not immediately appear to have any visual social effect, a closer look shows that the social mix of a school can cause the character of an area to change. A school which becomes known for its high level of achievement will attract those of a higher socio-economic status to its catchment area and as demand for housing grows so does the value of properties in the area. The higher property values means more money coming into the area which in turn leads to better school facilities and so a circular action is set in motion. This has aided in the perpetuation of the stratification of many towns and cities and had enabled the dominant culture to remain, in many cases, in a pure form.

In Britain and the Commonwealth education was used, until recently, to instill in the pupils the love of and loyalty to 'crown and country'. This was achieved through the use of flag raising ceremonies, the singing of the national anthem and articles in various educational publications. Another important aspect of education was, and still is, the gaining of wealth both for the individual and the state. A well educated nation is one which is seen as being democratic, egalitarian and whose citizens have the ability to grasp and utilise new methods of production and new technology. This led to wealth for the country as production increased and a growing ability to fulfil niche markets. It also led to more local and international investment, and in turn to more employment and therefore greater wealth for the country. Personal wealth also increased as the level of education rose and more people had the chance to climb up the socio-economic

ladder.

Although the conscious reasons for education appear on the surface to change over time, e.g. today few would say paternalism is a factor, the basic underlying principles of self improvement, the gaining of wealth and social order still remain true. While the state has laid down, over the years, a structure regarding who should attend school, for how long and when, it is still up to the individual agent to decide how they will react and how well they will use the system placed in front of them.

CANTERBURY STUDIES

The figure on page 25 shows the development of structure and agency with special note of how this changed within the Canterbury region, which is the focus of this thesis. This figure shows how the various changes in the system acted both on the structure, in this case the three forms of the state, and the agency, described as the communities in the rural localities.

Initially the Canterbury Association set up the bases for the establishment of schools in the province, although this did not go fully to plan. This link, from the structure to the agency, was for the rural sector very tenuous with the strong

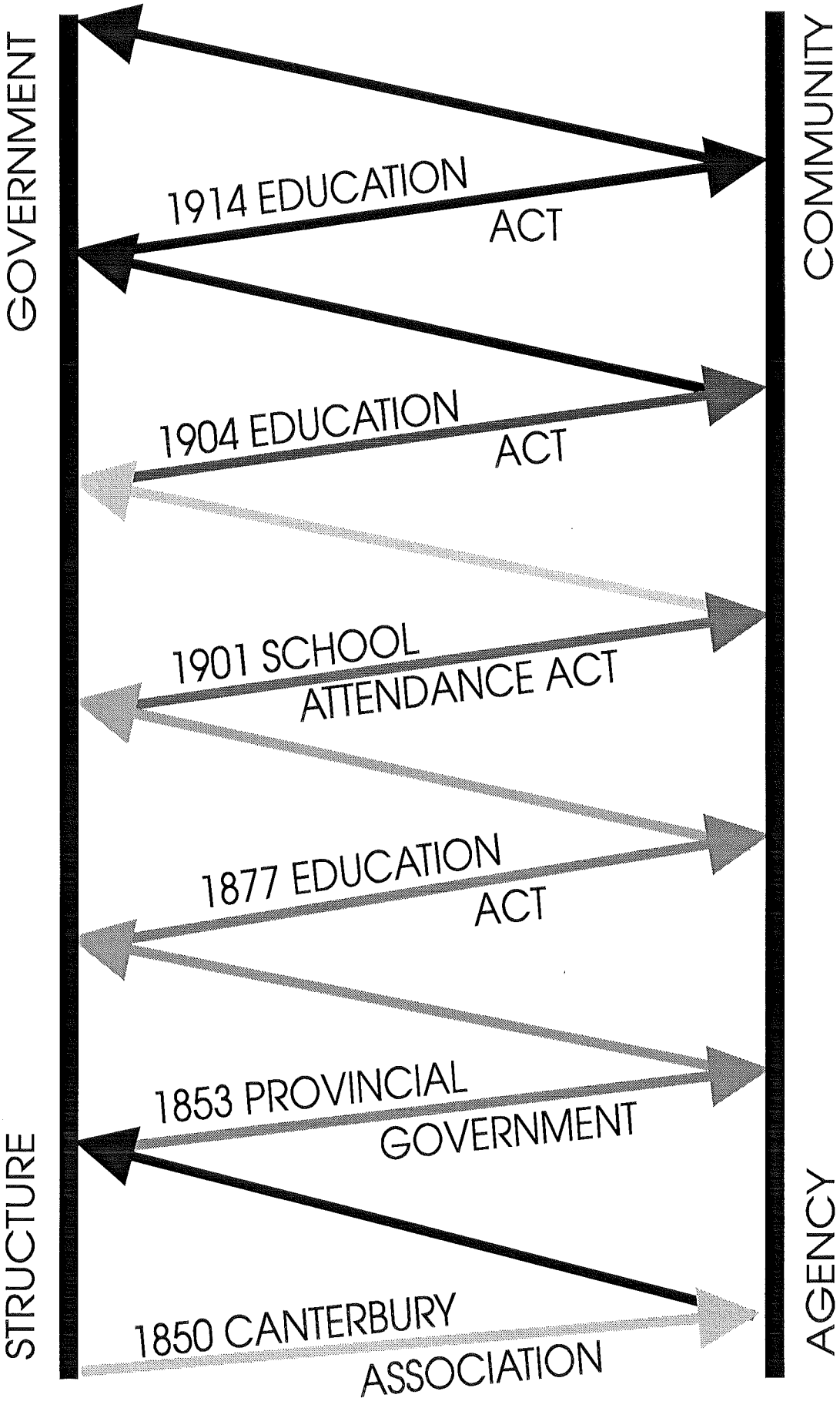

FIGURE 2-2 Links between structure and agency in rural Canterbury showing important factors involved

link being in the opposite direction. The strong link was due to demands for education and schools coming from the communities, although in the majority of cases this demand was met by the people themselves with only the minimum of help from the Association. In 1853 the Association was disbanded and the national Provincial system of government was established by the central government. With this advance the downward link strengthened. This is evidenced by the 1863 Education Commission which reviewed all the schools and made submissions regarding the direction the future should take.

The next step was the 1877 Education Act which was passed through parliament following the dissolving of the Provincial system. This Act has been considered the pivotal point in New Zealand education and laid foundations which began to meet the strong drive from the agency for a national system of education. Even in this there was a great deal of local control in the setting up and administration of the schools. While the final decision on the establishment of an educational district emanated from the regional Education Boards the initial approach emanated from a meeting of householders and parents. With the 1901 Attendance Act the central government, in the form of the Education Department, began to take greater control and so the link from the structure to the agency grew stronger, while that from the agency began to weaken as the high level of community involvement fell away.

In all the overseas studies examined few looked at the rural

systems or any regional areas either from a geographic or educational aspect. This work is looking at the geographic distribution of educational facilities in a specific region, that of North Canterbury. This section will look at some studies which have been carried out in New Zealand and especially in Canterbury.

A number of unpublished theses do deal with the rural sector under various disciplines, i.e. education, geography, sociology and history. In the 1920s and 1930s a number of studies were completed on various aspects of Canterbury general history and that of specific rural communities, however many of these deal with very short and limited time periods. One of the largest works was the four volume study by H.M. Hickey (later the Rev. Mother St. Domitille), *The History of Canterbury, 1850 to the end of the 1st Supertindendency, September 1857* written in 1924. This was followed by *A history of education in the province of Canterbury, New Zealand (to 1876)* by E. Oxford and H.I. Sinclair with *Elementary rural schools of New Zealand* in 1927. The Hickey and Oxford histories are both excellent major sources of information on Canterbury history and have, in part, the advantage of being written and researched within the memory of some of those involved or whose parents were involved. They do deal with the rural aspect, however little is said with regard to the schools especially in connection with their opening or any spatial details of the area covered.

Sinclair's is probably the only piece of work which equates with this study in looking in some detail at the reasons for rural schools. The others deal mainly with the management of schools, the curriculum, teaching methods and finance and while later works also deal with rural education, like the books, they mainly only look at a very small part of the larger picture and where mentioned at school closures and the justifications for those closures or consolidations. Apart from Sinclair's work only one other thesis in the Canterbury region has looked at schooling from a geographic slant and that, like many others, studies the urban situation. Joan Dimick's, 1978 Masters thesis in geography, looks at the availability and utilisation of pre-school facilities in Christchurch.

For New Zealand educational historians the works of A.G. Butchers and A.E. Campbell are probably the best known and read books. Butchers' companion books of *Education in New Zealand*[1] and *Young New Zealand*[2], published in 1929 and 1930 respectively, and later *The Education System : a concise history of the New Zealand education system* (1932) are regarded, by some, as the definitive works up to the early 1930s. A.E. Campbell's book *Educating New Zealand* (1941) is usually read alongside those of Butchers' to give a complete, if somewhat repetitive, mainly uncritical picture of the

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[1] The full title being *Education in New Zealand : an historical survey of educational progress amongst the Europeans and the Maoris since 1878.*

[2] The full title being *Young New Zealand : a history of the early contact of the Maori race with the European and the establishment of a national system of education for both races.*

general historical development of the education system. With regard to this theses however both authors are guilty of making little comment on the rural sector, in his book *Centennial History of Education in Canterbury*, Butchers does refer to some rural schools, however again only in a basic manner. None of these works have any true geographic links and apart from some more recent theses which deal with the urban setting no work has been located which deals with the spatial distribution of rural schools.

Some of the theoretical areas covered in both education and geography finally surfaced in later published works which began to look at the history of New Zealand education with a much more critical eye. Roger Openshaw and David McKenzie acted as editors for *Reinterpreting the Education Past : Essays in the History of New Zealand Education*, published in 1987. This book more than any previous one looks at some of the missing issues in Butchers' works and those of his contemporaries, one of which is the role of women in education. Among these essays is that of Mark Olssen, *What really happened ? Varieties of Educational History*, in which he heavily criticises many educational historians for their lack of value positions and attention to overseas educational and sociological theoretical perspectives and developments. Only one of the essays in this book deals in anyway with rural schools, as opposed to teaching and the curriculum, and that is Kay Matthews' chapter *The Long and Winding Road, the role of the 19th century primary school inspector : a case study*. This essay, while talking about some rural schools,

still only deals with them as an adjunct to those of the urban situation and again lacks any geographic link beyond that of a travelogue.

CONCLUSION

The word education has many meanings and everyone's learning continues through out their lives and so it can be said that any psychological, sociological, or educational theory, along with those from several other disciplines, can be applied to various aspects of education. While many of these theories have been extensively written about, few have been applied to the changing level of state involvement in the rural educational system except as a few minor comparisons with the urban situation. Away from the strictly theoretical areas the majority of works dealing with education have concentrated on the urban sector and where works do focus on the rural system they deal with the functions of the school as opposed to its position within a settlement. Some studies do talk of the schools as entities but rarely about their opening or spatial distribution, a link which this thesis will attempt to insert in the chain of educational and geographical history in New Zealand.

CHAPTER THREE

THE HISTORY OF NEW ZEALAND EDUCATION

The need to know the background of any problem, situation or group of individuals lies behind this chapter as it outlines the historical basis of the Canterbury education system that grew up over the years covered by this study. The previous chapter looked at the general theoretical basis of education regardless of its location. After an introduction, this chapter will first give an outline of the British background with special regard to the educational situation as it applied to the founders of the settlement and many of its first immigrants. Next follows a brief New Zealand history, again with special emphasis on the early education system. The next section concentrates on the geographic region which is the focus of this thesis, on the founders and the Canterbury Association and most importantly on the backgrounds of the members, their work in the setting up of education in Canterbury and, with the abolition of the provincial system, the work towards a national system.

INTRODUCTION

History deals with the passage of time and the events taking place during a specific period. Geography, in general, deals with space rather than time, the combination of the two creates historical geography as a combination of both time

and space with as Butlin says roots "in the academic study of history." (p. 53)

In both disciplines the factors of scale are paramount when decisions regarding the subject matter of a study is concerned. For the spatial dimension the scale can range from that of the global study, to that of small localised areas, e.g. the study of Littledene. Regarding time, the scale may be that of hundreds of years, or just a few months, within human geography the scale can also be focused on individual groups within a spatial area.

For this thesis the spatial area chosen is that of North Canterbury as defined by the 1900 report of the North Canterbury Education Board, one of six in the South Island and eight in the North Island. As shown in figure 3-1 the area extends from the Clarence River in the north through to the Rangitata River in the south, the foothills of the Southern Alps to the west and the Pacific Ocean to the east. However the urban area of the city of Christchurch has been omitted as have the areas of the Chatham Islands and the Arthur's Pass region.

During the period of the study the area administered by the Board changed considerably. These changes were due to the passing of various ordinances and Acts of Parliament which saw the boundaries of both the province and area of the Board's jurisdiction alter, e.g. until 1867 what is now South Canterbury was included, but with the General Assembly

passing the Timaru and Gladstone Board of Works Act it was declared a separate province. At one point it covered

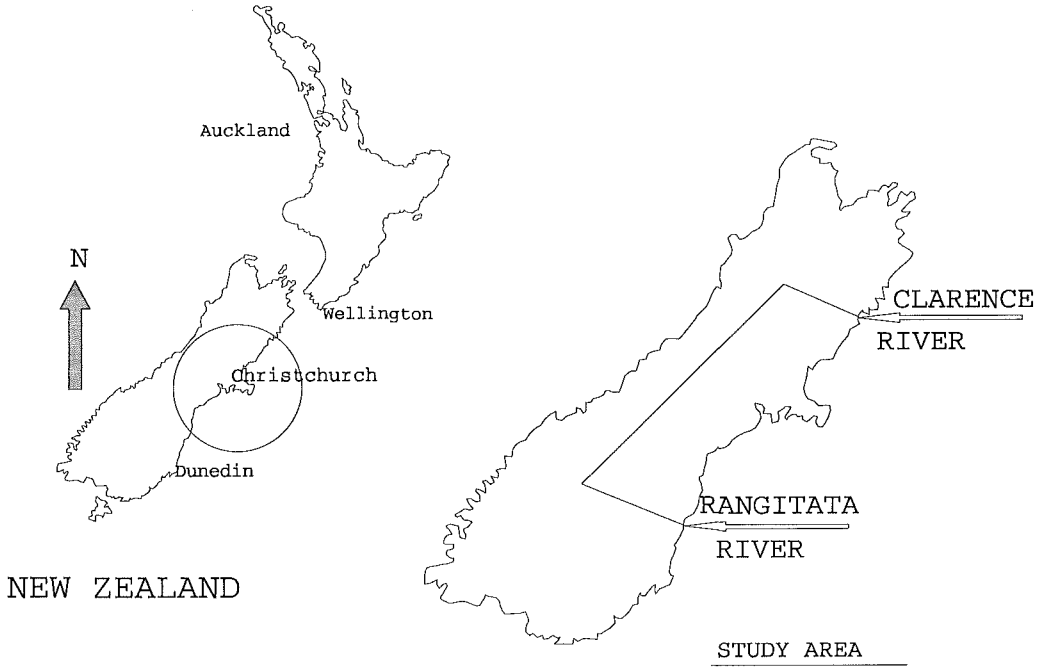

FIGURE 3-1 : Map of New Zealand showing the study area

southern areas of what is now Marlborough, at another the whole of Canterbury, while after the First World War it also included the West Coast. The date of 1900 was chosen for two reasons. Firstly because the main boundaries of settlement were established by 1900 and secondly because it was a social, economic and politically settled period approximately midway through the time frame. In 1895, the true midpoint, New Zealand was still recovering from some years of economic

depression and featured a period of a wide range of school openings, closings and renamings e.g. in 1896 11 schools were opened, 3 closed and over a 3 year period of 1894-1896 22 new districts were declared.

The time chosen for this study, 1850-1940, was selected as it covers the period from the arrival of the first planned settlers through to the beginning of New Zealand's involvement in the First World War and the deja vu effect of the start of the Second World War.

BRITISH BACKGROUND

Any history of New Zealand settlement and education begins with a background of British society as during much of New Zealand's history the British had the greatest influence. In Britain there have been many generations of belief that each 'man' has his place in the scheme of things and that it was wrong to aspire to a level above 'one's own'. Many saw education to be necessary only to a level required to maintain the individual or family at its 'God given status' within society. In fact Voltaire argues that "to give the meanest of people an education beyond the station that providence has assigned them, is doing real injury" (Green, 1990. p.32)

In the early nineteenth century Great Britain was still in the initial throes of the industrial revolution which increased the population movement from the rural areas to the

newly industrialised cities. This period also saw the growth of new economic theories and a more militant population which was reflected politically by the 1846 repeal of the hated Corn Laws[1] and socially by the such events as the Peterloo Massacre (1819)[2] and the 1832 so called 'Swing Riots'. The power of the unions was increasing and along with this the political and social awareness of the working and lower middle classes. It was said that the reformers of the nineteenth century came under two headings : "those whose impetus came from enthusiasm for democracy and those whose impetus came from fear of democracy" (Hight, 1957. p.137). The industrial economy was opening up new opportunities for upward social mobility and the key to this was seen as education and in particular literacy.

Philosopher John Locke sees a new born baby's mind as being a tabula rasa or clean slate on which anything can be imprinted (Green, 1990. p.30). Basically this is carried out in the first few years of life. While much imprinting comes from direct parental influences other factors, e.g. the 'neighbourhood effect', are involved. As described in chapter one, this effect is usually associated with the location of

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[1] A series of laws passed in England from 1436 on. They limited the export and import of wheat. The high price of bread caused wide-spread distress and led to the formation of the Anti-Corn Law League (1838). Following agitation and the Irish potato famine the law was repealed by Sir Robert Peel in 1846.

[2] The name given to a public disturbance in Manchester, England to which magistrates ordered the cavalry to charge a large peaceful crowd, partitioning of the Corn Laws. Even though there were several hundred casualties the government congratulated the magistrates so causing more unrest and the growth of radicalism.

a facility within a certain socio-economic area and its effect in perpetuating or reproducing the status of the residential area. Part of this however can also involve the major influence of a group of peers on an individual or family. In early nineteenth century Britain this was manifested in both the upper and working classes and was heavily based on the education system a child went through.

During this time education was viewed in a number of lights with many believing that with the raising of educational standards and levels, crime and undesirable habits would decrease and eventually almost disappear. They saw an analogy with the scales of justice held by the figure of Justice over the Old Bailey Law Courts in London. The more educated the populace the more equal the balance of the social and economic scales would be. On the down side of this argument many in the government held fears that as the 'ordinary' people had become literate they had begun to use these new skills in the wrong way. Some had joined secret 'corresponding societies' which were used to pass around what were regarded as seditious pamphlets (West, 1965. p.42), others were obtaining radical books such as Tom Paine's *The Rights of Man*, which is thought to have sold a quarter of a million copies; while William Cobbett is known to have sold 200,000 copies of his *Address to the Journeymen and Labourers* in only two months (West, 1965. p.127). The fears of the government and upper classes led to the introduction of harsh taxes on paper in, as E.G. West says, an attempt to curb the use of the public's reading and writing abilities (West, 1965

p.42). These 'taxes on knowledge', as they became known, were not removed until the 1850s and 1860s. The ironic thing during this period was that prior to the abolition of these taxes the government had begun subsidising education and "...to subsidise and tax the same activity was illogical and costly..." (West, 1965. p.43)

Economists saw education in several ways. First, they believed that 'political' literacy and knowledge was as important as literacy in the normal sense of having the basic ability to read and write. Many had the notion that a good education system could lead to the emergence of new political leaders from the wider community not just from the public school system[3]. Secondly, they also regarded education as having other social benefits such as lower fertility rates, which in turn, were leading to reduced population growth at a time when Europe, in general, was expanding at what some saw as an alarming rate. For industry education was regarded as the basis for improved worker productivity which in turn acted as a catalyst for increased saving, more rapid accumulation of new plant and equipment and hence further acceleration of growth (Mason & Suits, 1982. p.1.). It would also enable the industrialists to exert some degree of social control by ensuring that education was basic and based on monetary beliefs. There were however costs. The higher level of participation in schooling, for example, saw a decline in the numbers of young people in the labour force. This cost

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[3] Here the term 'public school' is used in its English sense of elite private schools.

not only industry but also the families at a time when many could least afford the loss of another income. It, however, was the dream of many parents that their children would be enabled to escape the poor, often slum, conditions they encountered in the industrial towns and cities.

During this period "education [in England] was stratified according to one's religion and social class" (Watson, 1965. p.21). In the upper classes it was expected that sons would either have private tutors or attend a preparatory school prior to an elite public school, e.g. Eton, Harrow or Winchester, and then go to either Oxford and Cambridge, or become a military officer. For some this route through the upper levels of the education system was purely an expected duty, for others the joys and worths of education were instilled into the psyche and they realised its importance to all classes.

The so called 'new' money classes, usually industrialists, attempted to follow the same educational route as the 'old monied upper classes. Although they often had more wealth than the titled classes, these new rich were not accepted at most of the elite public schools and so many new schools opened to cater for them. Once educated the majority of these young men, like their upper class equivalents, followed their fathers into the family firms or moved to the new world of America.

The upper and middle classes were mainly protected from the

worst aspects of the life of the majority of British industrial workers. Many workers lived in terraced houses built by the factory owners; these homes were very basic and usually so close to the plants that much of the emitted pollutants fell on and entered the houses. This caused much disease and disability among the workers, which affected their working capabilities and so some of the problems did come to the notice of the monied and upper classes. They were also realising that there was a growing need for a certain level of education as the factories and plants required trained mechanics and administrative staff to keep production, sales and profits growing.

Despite the conditions of many of the industrial centres a special camaraderie had grown up among the workers. They had formed tight networks and to break away from the accepted standards of the community was seen as putting the person and their family outside that network. This was especially true in the field of education, as most working class children were expected to have only the basic literary skills to allow them to follow in the footsteps of their parents or to advance to a standard which was still in keeping with the ethos of the neighbourhood. This led to a pervading sense of 'it was good enough for my father and my grandfather so it should be good enough for you'. However some did want to break away from the mould and the new colonies were, for many, the focus of finding the opportunities they needed and one of those colonies was New Zealand.

For the poor most of the education came from the churches with their Sunday schools and day schools, some were also taught by their parents, especially to read the Bible. There had been some moves to found nondenominational day schools for the poor, behind which was the Lancastrian Society (later to become the nonconformist British and Foreign School Society) headed by Joseph Lancaster. In opposition to this non-religious education was the National Society for the Promotion of the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. The founders felt that the Church of England should control the system in Britain as education was seen as the church's business. At this time the only non-church schools for the lower middle classes were the so called "Dame" schools run by elderly ladies who were more child minders than teachers (Watson, 1962. p.22). While the 1835 reports on schools in England and Wales found a total of 150 new infant schools and a large number of workhouse, charity and orphan schools, the majority of which were later to become "National" schools (Oxford, 1929. p.2) there were still insufficient to cater for the growing number of children of working parents.

Education in Scotland appears to have been at a level well beyond that of England with parish, burgh, church, endowed and private adventure schools. Although these schools were well spread through out the country, they have been described as "meagre and the teaching was too often ineffective" (Cumming, 1978. p.4). However there was a school in every parish and by 1840 most of the teachers were university

graduates who had to hold an appropriate qualification. The various socio-economic classes were not separated at Scottish schools and many of these parish schools went beyond the elementary level, for all capable children, leading to the schools being called true 'common' schools (Cumming, 1978. p.5).

It was not until 1833 that the English state became involved in general education with the first vote of money for education being £20,000 divided between the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society. This was followed in 1839 with the creation of "the Committee of the Privy Council on Education". The committee was followed by grants of £30,000 being voted to supplement locally raised funds, and although many still believed that the church was "a vital institution in complete harmony with the needs of the day" (Betteridge, 1948. p.2) they did not object to the state becoming involved. This lead was taken up by the formation of various other education based associations, e.g. in 1847 the Lancashire Public School Association[4] was formed to promote the formation of a public school system (Oxford, 1929. pp.3-4)

Outside the education sphere various industrial associations were forming and these unions were, with the use of mass meetings and strikes, gaining momentum. Following the 'Swing riots' which involved farm labourers, there were further uprisings in 1872 when as a now organised group they staged

[4]In 1859 it became the National Public School Association

the 'Revolt of the Field'. Unionism had spread through much of the industrial and pastoral southern region of England and this led to major farm lockouts. It was the more literate labourers who became involved as leaders in the unions and it was these people who were driven out of Britain into the arms of a waiting New Zealand. They were great advocates of education and urged their followers to send their children to school. Thus many writers see the creation of New Zealand's national education system as coinciding with the arrival of strong contingents of fairly literate agricultural labourers, eager to create an egalitarian, yeoman-type rural community (Arnold, 1973. pp.10-11). This is demonstrated by the fact that among the first immigrants were many university men who emigrated alongside the agricultural labourers picked from the English counties (Cyclopedia, 1903. vol. 3, p.813) and also, in the Canterbury province, many from Scotland and Ireland.

NEW ZEALAND

The first permanent non-whaling settlements, in New Zealand, were in the north of the North Island in the Russell area. It was in these northern settlements that the first schools were established, in 1815, by the missionaries. Initially only for the Maori people, after about five years, with fifteen European children in the mission, arrangements had to be made to teach the non-Maori. This was solved by lessons being held at daylight and in the early morning for the Maori and in the

late morning for the whites. By 1838 fifty-four schools had been established in New Zealand with a total roll of 1431 (Oxford, 1929. p.12)

By this point the settlement of New Zealand, especially in the north, was under way, however the first three governors - Hobson, Shortland and Fitzroy - took no interest in education and it was left to individuals and communities to make their own arrangements. It was not, therefore, until 1845 and the arrival of Governor Grey, that education was given any official recognition. The Legislative Council at Auckland passed the Education Ordinance no. 10, 1847 which said that the government had the powers

> "to establish and maintain schools for the education of youth, and to contribute towards the support of schools otherwise established."

This would have seen one twentieth of the estimated revenue of the colony being used to support the schools. In exchange for this contribution they were to be subject to annual inspection and were to include English, industrial training and religious teaching in their curriculums. Apart from this support and aid to the schools the government was not amenable to administer them, and as the Ordinance stated the schools would remain under the control of the head of the religious body to which they belonged (Oxford, 1929. p.13).

While this was accepted in the north the settlers of New Munster, consisting of the Wellington area plus the South

Island, refused to accept this system of aid and control. In 1849 the New Munster Legislative Council attempted to have the 1847 Ordinance repealed but Eyre, their Lieutenant Governor, refused. The South Island provinces had decided to go it alone and by September 1848 Otago had erected its first public building in the form of a school and church, while Nelson had already begun the establishment of a system of non-sectarian public schools.

Like the Canterbury founders many of the first politicians in New Zealand, both in provincial and national government, were well educated, some in Europe, Australia, Nelson or by private tutors. Prior to undertaking their political life many of these men served on school committees and Boards of Education and so when they gained their seats most continued their interest in educational subjects. Canterbury eduction was especially well represented in the House of Representatives by men who fully believed in the eventual desirability of a national system of schooling. In the early period, prior to the 1877 Act, the system over the country was very uneven with three good systems in the South Island and poor or non-existent ones in the North. One of the first calls for that national system came in 1869 when a resolution was passed calling on the government to provide "a comprehensive system of Public Schools adapted to the needs of the colony" (Hansard, 1869. pp.523-524). This call was not however taken up for another eight years, although several attempts were made to introduce and have passed various members Bills, when the 1877 Act was passed. This was then

followed by a flurry of education act amendments[5], which either closed a loop hole or problem or updated the original Act to take account of new conditions. There were also a large number of Acts which had some relevance to education, e.g. the Public Service Classification and Superannuation Act, 1909, the Public Health Act, 1900 and the Destitute Persons Act of 1910. These dealt with teachers and school inspectors pensions, the establishment of the Department of Public Health which became, in part, responsible for the medical inspection of schools and school children and, in conjunction with other Acts, with physically challenged and disadvantaged children.

This combination of the pressure from below, from the settlers, and above from many of the early politicians saw the spread of schools in New Zealand forge ahead. It also ensured that, where possible, the system kept abreast of the latest overseas educational developments in the areas of teaching and curriculum and in the way the schools were designed and maintained.

CANTERBURY

In 1829 Edward Gibbon Wakefield (1796-1862) published "*The Sketch of a Proposal for Colonizing Australia*", in this he said that

[5] See appendix two for a list of education related Acts passed during the study period.

> "by systematic colonization England would find new fields for investment, new homes and new employments for her prudest population, and new markets for her manufactures. The colonies in turn would provide the mother country with food and raw materials." (Pawson and Quigley, 1982. p.65)

He had looked at Australia with its haphazard settlement and lack of true plans, and was dissatisfied with what he saw. Through his study of Greek colonization Wakefield had become a strong advocate of systematic colonization and after looking at some of the American religious settlements, e.g. the Hutterites in South Dakota, he felt that they demonstrated the importance of a strong religious base (Betteridge, 1948. p.3). Although originally intending to establish a settlement in Australia he became unhappy with the situation there and looked towards New Zealand.

The New Zealand Land Company had already been established to purchase land from the Maori and to sell it on to prospective settlers and investors. In 1848 the Company purchased most of the South Island from the natives for £2,000 and sold 300,000 acres to the newly established Canterbury Association, named from the mother diocese of the Church of England (Scotter, 1968. p.17). The Association was set up after a meeting between Wakefield and John Robert Godley (1814-1861) in 1847. One of its first aims was "to plant overseas a society which would carry on the values of an England increasingly threatened by industrialization and revolution at home" (Dictionary of New Zealand Biography, 1990. p.151).

The Association was quickly set up and included an impressive

list of members, (see table 3-1) which included the archbishops of Canterbury and Dublin, seven English bishops, eight other clergymen, a number of leading Members of Parliament and members of the upper class. Many of the names of these men can still be seen on maps of the region e.g. the Rev. Edward Coleridge, William Forsyth and the Earl of Ellesmere all have lakes named after them, while others have given their names to towns. From the first, education was seen as important and Association members regarded it as being more than the three R's. Education was to act as the agent in the forming of the moral principles and habits of the population (Watson, 1962. p.46). Another of its aims was to have an Anglican member only region and so one Captain Joseph Thomas was asked to survey and select suitable land in New Zealand for the new settlement. Although initially looking at land in the Otago area he finally decided on what is now the Canterbury Plains and so land was offered for sale at £3 per acre and true settlement began with the arrival of the first four ships in December 1850. Although the central area was swampy, there was the required good natural port and an agricultural plain between the mountains and the coast. There were navigable rivers in the 1,000 acres to be used for the capital of the settlement to be called Christchurch (Hight, 1957. p.114) and an excellent climate.

Thomas had laid out plans for many of the areas around the site and at Lyttelton "proposed to put up a combined church and school, 'emigration' barracks, survey office, and agent's office, and at the mouth of the Heathcote (Sumner) a jetty

and store." He also said that the settlers should consist of labourers, "agriculturalists, shepherds, and herdsmen" (Hight, 1957. p.121). It had already been decided that Canterbury should become the pastoral food basket for New Zealand and for Britain.

Godley was very committed to the new settlement as he had lived on his family's Irish estate at Killegar and was in fear of the social problems there. He thought that the Europeans were about to succumb to the "evil and destructive forces at work in Church and society" and in the new colony he saw Europe's chance to "regenerate itself in the newer societies of the Americas and the Antipodes" (Hight, 1957. p.137).

When the Association set up its Charter in 1849 it, in part, followed the lead of the Lay Association of the Free Church of Scotland who had acquired land in Otago. There land was sold for £2 an acre with three-eighths of the money going towards emigration, two-eights for surveys and public works, one-eight for religious and educational endowments, and two-eights for the company (Hight, 1957. p.147). In Canterbury the funds were to be divided into six equal parts, one-sixth for the buying of land, two-sixths for emigration, one-sixth for general purposes of the Association and "... two other sixth parts there of shall be appropriated to Ecclesiastical and Educational purposes..." (Canterbury Association Charter). It was these final two sixths that set the scene of the future of education in the Canterbury Province with the

investments in land, initially unpopular, allowing the region to establish one of the best educational systems in New Zealand.

When the first immigrants were chosen in Britain there was an attempt to select a group from the full spectrum of society. Although the initial intent was that they should all be members of the Church of England not all were. This is demonstrated by the census of November 1851, which is

TABLE 3-1

COMMITTEE AND OFFICERS OF THE CANTERBURY ASSOCIATION

PRESIDENT : Archbishop of Canterbury

CHAIRMAN : John Hutt

Archbishop of Dublin	Thomas Somers Cocks M.P.
Duke of Buccleuch	Rev. Edward Coleridge
Marquis of Cholmondeley	Charles Wynne
William Forsyth	Lord Courtenay
Earl of Ellesmere	Rev. George Robert Gleig
Earl of Harewood	Edmund Halswell
Earl of Lincoln M.P.	Ven. Archdeacon Hare
Viscount Manderville M.P.	Rev. James Cecil Wynter
Rev. Ernest Hawkins	Lord Alfred Hervey M.P.
Bishop of Lincoln	Charles Bowyer Adderley M.P.
F. Alleyne McGeachy	Sir Walter Farquhar, Bart.
Bishop of Rippon	Lt.-Col. Archer
G. Kettilby Rickards	Hon. Richard Cavendish
Bishop of St. David's	John Simeon
Augustus Stafford M.P.	Rt. Hn. Henry Goulburn M.P.
Hon. John Talbot	Rev. Dr. Hook
Viscount Alford M.P.	Rev.Charles Martin Torlesse
Rev. Richard Chenevix Trench	Bishop of Winchester
Ven. Archdeacon Wilberforce	Bishop of Exeter

Bishop of Oxford	Dean of Canterbury
Samuel Lucas	Lord Ashley M.P.
Bishop of Norwich	Lord Lyttelton
Lord Ashburton	Lord John Manners
Hon. Sir Edward Cust	Hon. Francis Charteris M.P.
Rt. Hn. Sidney Herbert M.P.	Sir Walter James, Bart
W.H. Pole Carew M.P.	Sir Willoughby Jones, Bart.
Sir William Heathcote, Bart.	

detailed in table 3-2. While the largest majority were Anglican (72.3%), there were also Protestants (6.2%), Wesleyans (6.3%), Roman Catholics (4.3%), with other Christian churches making up another 10.2% and none declared

TABLE 3-2

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS

(As at the Census of November 1851)

DENOMINATION	MEMBERSHIP
Church of England	2361
Protestant	203
Episcopalian	47
None	21
Roman Catholic	139
Presbyterian	98
Church of Scotland	13
Est. Church of Scotland	51
Scotch Protestants	8
Scotch Independents	4
Dissenters	20
Independents	9
Wesleyan	207
Methodist	24
Baptist	19
Lutheran	5
Dutch Lutheran	1
Unitarian	1

Evangelist	10
Society of Friends	1
No Entry Made	21
Rank Methodist	1
TOTAL	3264

(Hight 1957, Appendix VI)

and no entries completing the picture with 1.3%. This was only one of the basic intentions of the Canterbury Association which did not work out.

The founders of the Association worked on the assumption that 200,000 acres would be sold within the first year or two and that among its costs would be

20 Churches at £1,000 each	£20,000
20 Parsonage-houses & Glebes at £500 each	£10,000
20 schools at £100 each	£ 2,000
A college & chapel	£ 6,000
Residence for a Bishop, the Principal of the college & an Archdeacon	£ 3,000

(Hight, 1957. p.151)

Unfortunately the land did not sell at the expected rates and many of these desires were not fulfilled. As the population grew and spread, it quickly became obvious that 20 schools would fall far short of the requirements of the new settlements. The first three schools were established within a month of the arrival of the first four Association chartered ships. The Charlotte Jane and the Randolph, both of which arrived in Lyttelton on the 16th of December, plus the

Cressey which arrived on the 27th of December, all left Portsmouth on the 7th of September 1850, with the Sir George Seymour leaving the following day and arriving on the 17th December 1850. Each carried between 150 and 215 passengers. The passenger list on each ship included a surgeon, a chaplain and teachers, Mr Edward Toomath on the Cressey, Mr Purseglove on the Charlotte Jane, Mr John Bilton on the Sir George Seymour and a Mr Stoddard on the Randolph (Watson, 1962. p.75). These men conducted classes on the ships which included in their curriculums readings from Plato and from Goldsmith's *History of England* and each ship had a map of New Zealand pinned on its struts (Ash, 1962. p.7). Many of the later immigrant teachers also had other skills which could be utilised until the schools were established. Among nine teachers sponsored by the Rev. Thomas Jackson (the short-lived Bishop designate), three were good carpenters, two excellent modellers, and all were used to practical agriculture. One played the organ, one was a clever draughtsman and able to teach drawing, while another was an artist able to decorate the churches (Watson, 1962. p.66)

The first on shore schools[6] were set up in the immigration barracks at Lyttelton and consisted of an infants school, a boys' school and a girls' school. Once the new Cantabrians had crossed the Port Hills and had started to settle the demand for schools began. It had always been intended to set up an elite college to be seen as the New Zealand Eton or

[6]It is thought that there were one or two private tutors conducting schools in private homes although little is known about them.

Harrow and this was established as Christ's College.

By November 1851 the education fund stood at £24,253 but with expenditure at £23,195, including £13,000 invested in land for endowments, only £1,058 was available for building schools. This led to the Association borrowing £12,000 from private sources in 1852 and one-third of this went to the fund for land endowments. The colonists were unhappy with this situation as the promised money for their schools was locked up in the endowments and the leases which had been let on the land were bringing in only £140 per year (Betteridge, 1948. p.29). This particularly affected the rural areas and meant that the colonists had to raise most of the money themselves as there was an abundance of school sites but no money to build them (Editor's reply to a letter to the Lyttelton Times 20/7/1852).

Eighteen fifty three saw the end of the Canterbury Association control of education as the Provincial system of government was introduced. The Provincial Council made a grant of £1,000 to open schools in what is now Christchurch city and in Lyttelton, Governor's Bay, Akaroa and O'Kains Bay. Each school was to collect fees from the pupils at the rate of 1/- per week plus 6d. for every additional child in the same family. There were to be some scholarships available and the Council was to have the right of inspection and to audit school accounts (Betteridge, 1948. p.62). In 1856 this grant was increased to £1,300 and the area was extended to include Kaiapoi and also a group listed as "dissenters",

perhaps the first indication that in Canterbury the educational system would move "from being ultra-denominational" and become "ultra-secular and departmental, and ultimately, both in its extent and its successful organisation, closely rivalled that of Otago" (Young, 1929. Appendix B).

THE FOUNDERS

Any idea has to come from the mind of an individual and most are based on the past social and intellectual experiences of the person involved. In the case of the foundation of the Canterbury Province this idea came from the mind of Edward Gibbon Wakefield who was born on the 20th of March 1796 in London. He was the son of a farmer and land agent who "was so wrapped up in his intellectual and philanthropic concerns, that he threw the burden of raising a young family on his wife". Edward was educated at Mr. Haigh's school in Tottenham and although accepted at the Westminster School he refused to go and after being removed from Edinburgh High School for causing trouble spent the next two years at home. In 1813 he was admitted to Gray's Inn but did not practice law, instead acting as a messenger for one William Hill of the diplomatic service. At 20 he eloped with the 16 year old heiress and ward of chancery Eliza Prattle and was made the under secretary's secretary at the legation in Turin. After Eliza's death he was sentenced to 3 years in Newgate jail for the abduction and it was here that he formed his ideas on colonization and published several works. In 1830, along with

several young MPs, he formed the National Colonization Society, 1837 had a leading role in the New Zealand Association and with Godley formed a promotional body for the Church of England settlement in Canterbury.

Under his auspices, in 1849, the Society for the Reform of Colonial Government was established and after he landed at Lyttelton in 1853 was elected as the Hutt representative in the House of Representatives and later to the Wellington Provincial Council. Edward Wakefield died on the 16th of May 1862, after never having settled in the province he had helped found. (Dictionary of NZ Biography, p.572).

Gibbon's Canterbury Association co-founder was John Robert Godley. Born in Dublin in 1814, the son of John Godley a wealthy landowner, he married Charlotte Griffith Wynne of Voelas, Wales in 1841. Godley's education was fairly typical of many of the upper class, he attended Harrow and in 1832 won a classics scholarship to Christ Church, Oxford. In 1839 he was called to the Irish Bar and in 1844 following a tour of the United States and Canada had a book of his *Letters from America* published. When appointed the High Sheriff of County Leitrim in 1843 he supported Catholic education, four years later following a potato famine he set out a proposal for the large-scale settlement of Irish emigrants in Ontario. In November of the same year he met up with Wakefield and they launched the Canterbury Association.

Godley lived in Canterbury for two years, having arrived with

his wife and a young son, and acted as the Association 'Resident Chief Agent'. Having left Canterbury in 1852, by 1855 he was assistant under secretary at the War Office. He died of TB in London in November 1861. (Dictionary of NZ Biography, p.151)

Although not on the list of the Committee and Officers of the Association others were still influential in the establishment of the Province, especially with regard to education. Charles Christopher Bowen was born in 1830 in County Mayo, Ireland of an Anglo-Irish gentry family of Welsh origin. His first education was under a private tutor in France, followed by Rugby school and Cambridge University. He arrived in New Zealand on the Charlotte Jane in 1850 and in 1852 was appointed a Justice of the Peace. 1853 Saw him as Inspector of police and chief clerk to the resident magistrate and provincial treasurer Charles Simeon. During the next few years he was appointed provincial treasurer, clerk to the court, a member of FitzGerald's provincial executive, Commissioner and Treasurer of the Canterbury Waste Land Board, Commissioner of Native Land Reserves and the receiver of land revenue. He was editor and joint owner of the Lyttelton Times, a resident magistrate, Canterbury member of the Legislative Council, Minister of Justice and Commissioner of Stamp Duties.

Throughout his varied career his greatest interest was in education and from 1871 he had served on the Canterbury Education Board as Chairman, he was President of the

Canterbury Collegiate Union (the basis for Canterbury College later the University) and was a member of its first Board of Governors. In 1872 he delivered a speech in which he defended the Provincial Council's abandonment of the denominational system "emphasising that education's function was to enable the state to control its citizens". It was Bowen who introduced the pivotal 1877 Education Bill into parliament and he spoke at considerable length on its clauses. After losing his seat Bowen held various offices in the senate of the University of New Zealand and acted as Chairman of the reconstituted North Canterbury Education Board. In 1881 he retired from politics and having been knighted in 1910 and awarded the KCMG in 1914 he died in 1917 (NZ Bibliography, p.33).

Bowen was probably the most influential person in the educational field both in the Canterbury Province and with his support of education in Parliament, in New Zealand.

There were others who were also important in the formation of the Province and the backgrounds and lives of these are shown in the appendices. The men listed above were chosen to be in the main body of the thesis as they were all concerned with the progress of the education system.

CONCLUSION

The initial ideals of the Canterbury Association were excellent when viewed against the background of the

industrial northern hemisphere. The planners wanted to "create in New Zealand a pattern of life that reflected the best in English society of the early nineteenth century but avoided its defects" (Cant, 1960. p.2)

Although the intention was for Canterbury to be exclusively for Church of England members it was not possible for this to come to fruition as Young says

> "As it turned out, the intended racial and denominational exclusiveness of these settlements could not be maintained. But the predominant characteristics of these Provinces [Otago and Canterbury] to this day are those given them by their founders" (p.87)

This is especially true of the Canterbury settlements as they expanded. The founders had laid down some guidelines and bases for education and while some were unpopular at the time, e.g. large reserves of money invested in endowment land, with the value of historical hindsight their wisdom is fully revealed. As Alan and Ian Cumming say

> "During the 1860s Otago and Canterbury were most favoured provinces; nature made them what they were and they had more than their fair share of men who won fame in their own generation and were the pride of their times." (p.55)

The Church of England had quickly lost its early footing with the lack of a suitable Bishop to act as a lynch pin and head of the education system. It was a loss from which they never recovered and which allowed both other churches and dissenters to gain footholds. A situation which when put alongside the Nelson and Otago systems aided in the spread of

a non-sectarian system throughout the whole colony. It also allowed the local people, without recourse to their religious beliefs, to be involved in the education of their children.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SPREAD AND RETRENCHMENT OF RURAL SCHOOLS

The previous chapters in this study have presented a background to the establishment of education. Chapter two looked at the theory of education in general, while chapter three looked at the historical foundations of education in New Zealand and placed a special emphasis on that of Canterbury. With that foundation this chapter will endeavour to look in more depth at some of the political, demographic, social and financial reasons behind the spatial spread of rural schools in the North Canterbury region. It will show how the parents and other settlers in a community fought, and often paid, to gain a school and fought equally hard to retain what many regarded as a symbol of the permanence of the district.

INTRODUCTION

The gaining of a school was, in part, based on the numbers of children within easy travelling distance, and the support, financial and practical, of the local community. While its loss stemmed from a range of factors, e.g. in the early period a school would be closed due to a lack of a suitable teacher. A changing population also saw many schools open and close, especially where a finite resource e.g. timber stands, a new industry e.g. freezing works, or civil engineering projects like those of the Lake Coleridge power station and

the building of the Midland Railway, were concerned.

With the beginning of the school bus service in 1924, which is discussed in chapter six, many small schools were closed and consolidated with larger more central ones. While this was initially resisted, by some fiercely, as the belief of 'bigger is better' spread and other advantages of economy of scale were realised, the transportation of pupils became accepted. These factors meant that the era of the small, one-roomed, one teacher schools disappeared from all but the more remote rural areas.

OPENINGS

The first schools in Canterbury were established in the Immigration Barracks at Lyttelton just a few weeks after the arrival of the "first four ships" and proved to be very popular. This is demonstrated by the attendance numbers which range from 238 in 1872, 546 in 1880, 632 in 1884 with a drop back to 416 in 1903[1]. As the new settlers moved over the hills on to the plains more schools were established, especially the jewel in the Canterbury Association crown - Christ's College, in what was to be Christchurch city. While the majority of the early schools were set up in either Christchurch or Lyttelton, by the time of the 1863 Provincial Education Commission there were a total of 37 schools receiving government aid in the greater Canterbury region.

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[1] For a full listing of average attendances for the period of 1872-1940 see appendix four.

This number included 21 under the auspices of the Church of England, 9 Presbyterian and 7 Wesleyan, while their spatial spread included 17 in the city, 4 in Lyttelton, 2 at Kaiapoi Island and 2 at Akaroa, plus 2 out of the thesis study area. In addition there were an unknown number of private schools held in various homes around the region, e.g. that opened by Ebenezer Hay in 1852 at Pigeon Bay. He had built a school room at the end of his orchard which catered for 15 pupils including his own children and those of his neighbours. In 1865 the school was taken over by the Board of Education and by 1872 had a certified teacher and a roll of 39 pupils. The history of this school is well documented due to its take over by the Education Board, however the majority of the small often short-lived private schools closed with the loss of records and little interest being taken in them for many years.

From the period of establishment the Canterbury education system went through a number of changes. Initially it was, in part, under the control of the Canterbury Association, it then passed to the Provincial Government and with the dissolution of the Provinces and the introduction of the provisions of the 1877 Education Act a new three level system was established. This is shown in figure 4-1.

With the ending of the Canterbury Association and the setting up of the Provincial government in 1853-4 the financial problems of the colony were passed to J. E. Fitzgerald, as

Superintendent, and this included education. Many of the dreams of the Association, with regard to education, had fallen short due to the lack of expected land sales which were to be the financial backbone of the system. From the

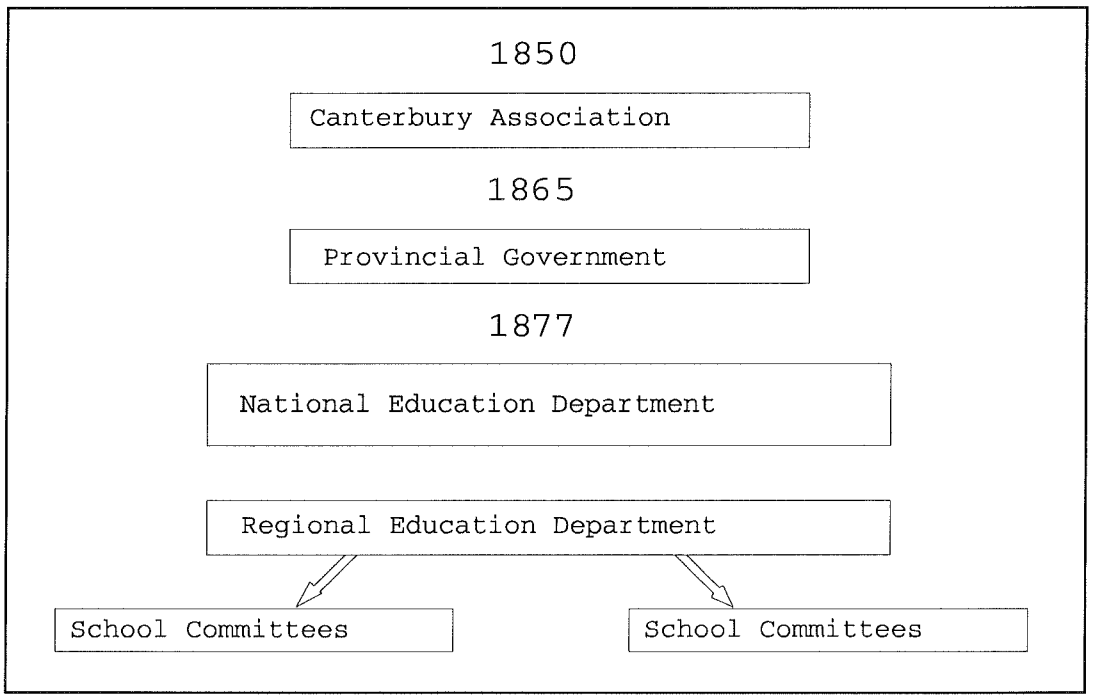

FIGURE 4-1 Changes in the control of Canterbury Education

start, much of the responsibility for education had fallen to the churches, however in his first speech on 27 September 1854 Fitzgerald made it clear that there should be a defined separation between church and state. W.J. Gardner in *A History of Canterbury* volume II, summarises the relative part of that speech

> "the state had a primary duty to society to see that religious education was conducted; religious education was the concern of the denominations, not the state; the denominations were appropriate bodies to set up schools offering both religious and secular education by such schools; the state

the denominations." (pp.376-377)

Although he still saw the churches as the establishers of schools Fitzgerald was attempting to cut the Province from the religious ideals of the old Association and

> "His prescription presupposed a broad agreement on social aims, the ability of the Churches to conduct efficient schools and the right of all children to education"
>
> (Gardner. 1971. p.377)

From this point the Provincial Government took over the responsibility for the opening of new schools in the region, however once again the lack of funds curbed the ambitions and the status quo ruled for some time. In fact by 1857 education had almost hit rock bottom with those being able to afford private education leaving the 13 poorly run public schools, to the poor (Gardner. 1971. p.378). By the time of the 1862 provincial elections the Canterbury area was undergoing a mini boom and the dominance of the Anglican church was falling. In 1851 72.3% of the population were classed as Anglicans, while by 1862 due partly to the influx of people involved in the gold rushes this had dramatically dropped to 53% (Gardner. 1971. p.379). The elections in combination with Fitzgerald's action of moving, in council, for a commission to be set up to enquire into it, saw education become a major issue in the province.

This 1863 Commission, headed by the Honourable H.J. Tancred, looked at the operations of various education systems

especially those of the Australian states. The system which impressed the Commissioners most was that of New South Wales. In this state once the initial demand for a school was found a public meeting was called to elect a provisional committee. The members then collected subscriptions and made a preliminary application to the education board for a school to be established in their community (Education Commission Report, 1863. p.6). The commission also looked at the existing systems in the New Zealand provinces. The Auckland Education Board, although having aided in the setting up of schools, did not have any equity in the school sites or buildings and, where required, the appropriation of sites for the future was controlled under the Waste Land Regulations. In the Wellington area the initiation for a school was left to registered voters, six of whom could call a meeting.

In the South Island the education systems of Nelson and Otago were well established and far ahead of those of the North Island. Both of these provinces had wealthy bases and as previously mentioned the South Island did not have the racial problems which were occurring in the North. In Nelson four educational acts had already been passed by 1863, the first being in February 1855. The 1858 Education Amendment Act saw the ratepayers being required to contribute £50 in rates to establish a school, plus they were required to have set up a management committee and to have provided a Board approved school-room. In Otago the system said that local people must pay for;

1) Teachers' salaries minus the £50 per teacher allowance from the Board.

2) Half the cost of the teachers' passage

3) Half the cost of repairs and maintenance and of fencing the land.

4) The cost of the buildings insurance.

5) All incidental expenses.

They also had to set up district committees who were responsible for, among other items, deciding the number and description of the schools needed in their districts (Education Commission Report, 1863. p.6)

In Southland, which had originally been part of Otago, the cost of buildings and sites came from the revenue of education reserves, appropriations by the Provincial Council and from assessments from ratepayers. For the rural areas, of Southland perhaps one of the most important tasks of the Superintendent was that he was required to divide the Province into educational districts with a radius of no more than four miles. This factor of distance from the school was to become important as school attendance became mandatory.

The Commission also looked at the demographic factor and school attendances in the Canterbury Province and table 4-1 details its findings.

TABLE 4-1 : Canterbury population and numbers attending school, as at 1863.

Census District	Populat -ion	No. under 16	No. at School	Proportion of pop. at school	% at school
Cheviot	1305	384	15	1 in 87.0	3.91
Kaiapoi	2191	1149	284	1 in 7.7	24.72
Christchurch	3205	1364	412	1 in 7.7	30.20
Avon	2181	1119	218	1 in 10.0	19.48
Heathcote	2119	950	232	1 in 9.1	24.42
Ellesmere	481	206	29	1 in 16.6	14.08
Lyttelton	1944	802	268	1 in 7.2	33.42
Akaroa	1031	504	88	1 in 11.7	17.46
Timaru	1583	477	43	1 in 36.8	9.01
TOTALS	16040	6955	1589	1 in 10.0	22.85

Source: Based on Report of 1863 Canterbury Education Commission.

They then compared the proportions with those of other countries and states

DATE	COUNTRY	PROPORTION OF POPULATION IN SCHOOL
1858	England	1 in 7.7
	Scotland	1 in 10.0
	Prussia	1 in 6.27
	Holland	1 in 8.11
	France	1 in 9.0
	Chile	1 in 45.0
	Other Sth. American States	1 in 100
1850	United States	1 in 5.7
	New England States	1 in 4.0
	New Brunswick	1 in 8.3
1857	New South Wales	1 in 10.0
1862	Otago	1 in 11.7

From this the Commission found that while the figures for Canterbury compared well with those of Scotland, New South Wales and Otago the overall system was inadequate, especially for the rural sector. The majority of the denominational schools were "in the towns where school rolls could be built up more easily" (Gardner, 1971. p.380) and also the system was not giving value for the £7 13s 0d per child (at least twice the cost of that in Australia) it was costing. To try and counteract this situation it was suggested that a Provincial Board of Education be established with local committees to administer the individual schools of the public schools. In its final report the Commission made a number of recommendations based on the best of each of the examined systems. One suggestion was the formation of a Board to oversee and administer education in the Canterbury region. With the Commissioners appointed as the first Board they saw most of their recommendations enacted in the Education Ordinance of 1864, which set up a dual system of district public and old denominational schools (Gardner, 1971. p.382).

Prior to the 1871 Education Ordinance a school fee had been levied for each pupil attending public schools. This was seen as a partial disincentive to attendance for many poorer families. The Ordinance changed the financing of education by abolishing the school fees and introducing an annual education rate of £1 per householder within a three mile radius of a school plus a capitation charge of 5/- per child. This system, in part, adopted from that of Nelson, saw a rise

in attendance and the formation of 18 new education districts and so by 1873 there were 79 district schools[2]. Figures 4-2 and 4-3 demonstrate the rapid increase in the numbers of schools established in the four years from 1870 to 1874. The maps especially show how close groupings of schools were beginning. Some were due to the opening of side schools, while other opened to facilitate new industries and resources.

In Canterbury the opening of the rural schools was left in the hands of the local people in the settlements, who were required to follow a certain pathway to ensure their children's education. The main actions leading to the opening of a school is detailed in figure 4-4 which shows some of the establishment links.

Once the demand for education had been found a meeting of householders[3] in the area was called and a school committee was elected. This committee was responsible for fundraising and for putting forward the application to the Education

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[2] These include those within the city of Christchurch.

[3] Householders were the owners and occupiers of land ' being male persons above the age of twenty-one years' (Cumming. p.59). This was changed under the 1877 Education Act to read "...every adult male or female person, who as owner, or tenant lessee or occupier, occupies, uses or resides in any dwelling-house shop warehouse or other building in any district, or every parent or guardian who is liable to maintain, or has the actual custody of, any child". (1877 Act)

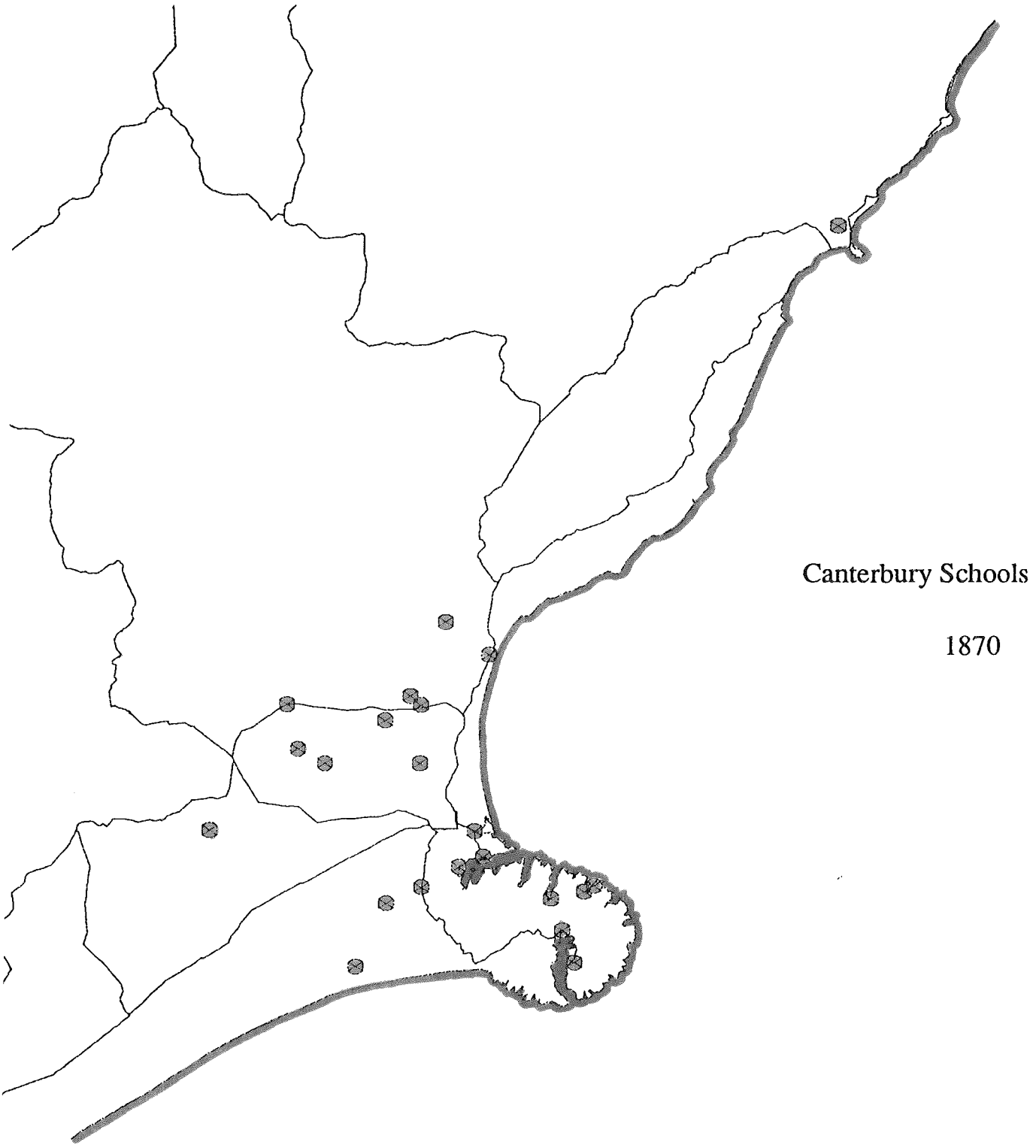

FIGURE 4-2 : Map showing the schools open in North Canterbury in 1870

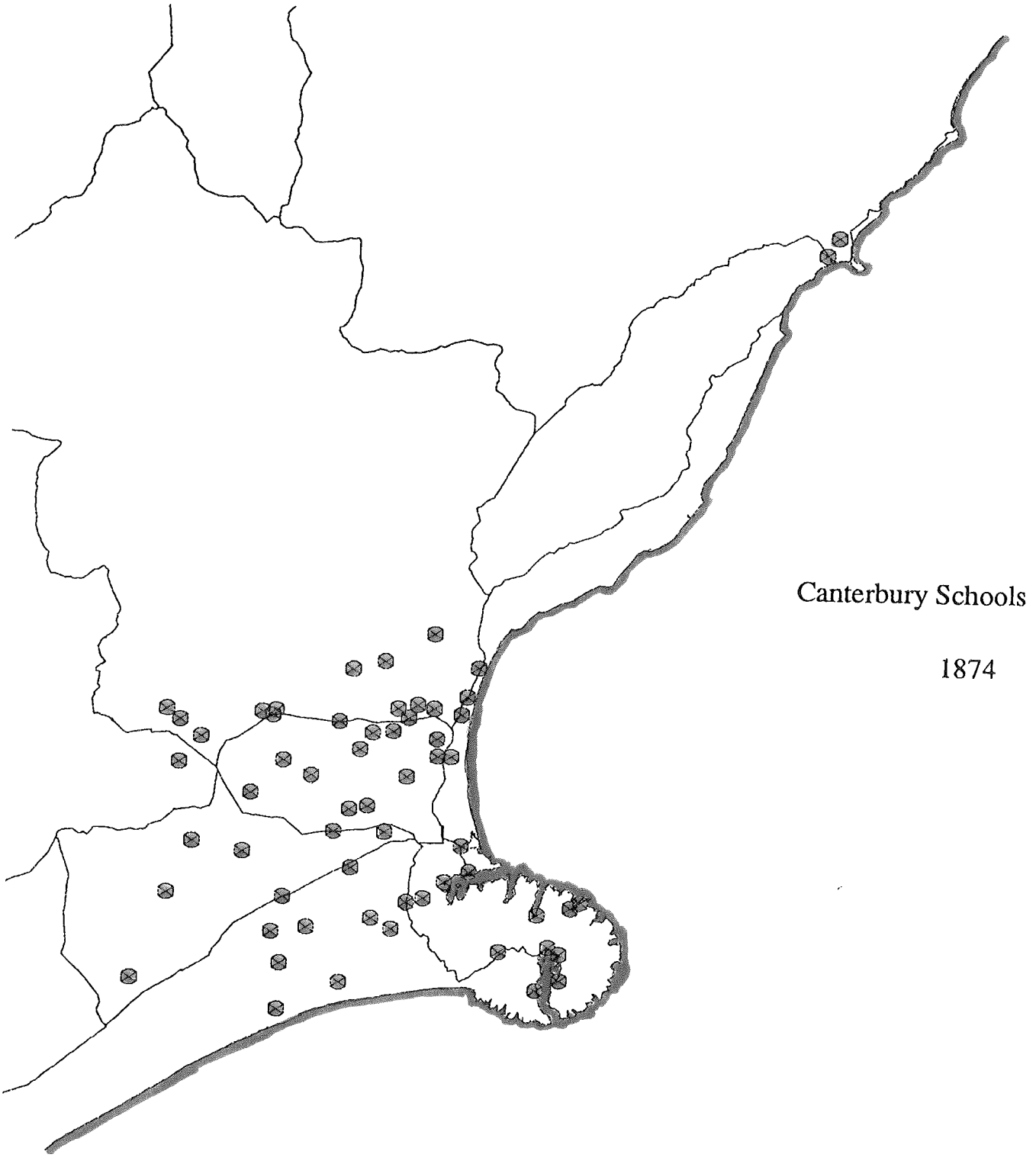

FIGURE 4-3 : Map showing the schools open in North Canterbury in 1874

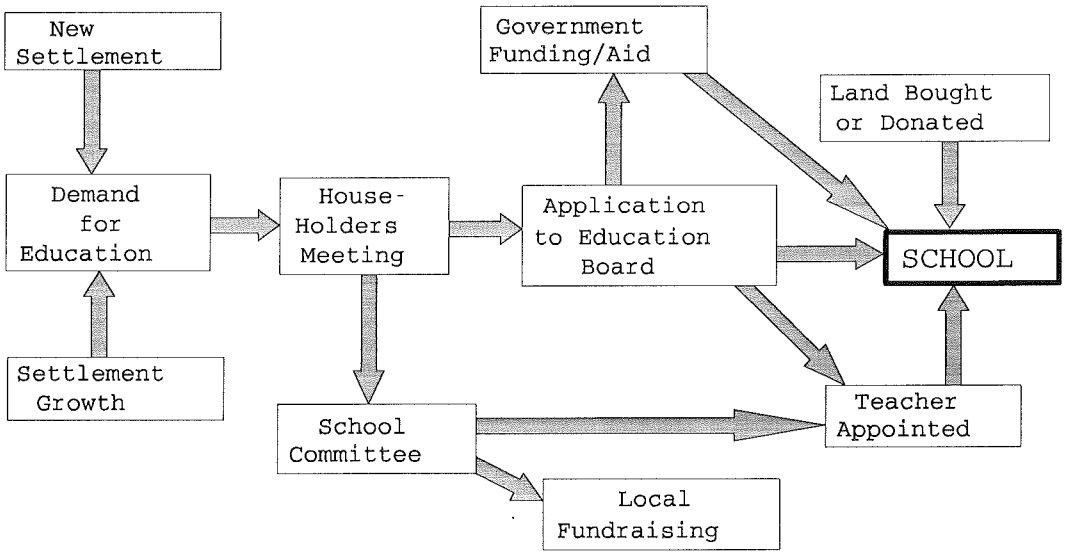

FIGURE 4-4 : The pathways toward the establishment of a rural school
Source : The Author

Board[4] for the area to be declared an educational district and also to apply for government funding and aid. Although correctly speaking permission was to be obtained first, many communities went ahead and established a school building on a site which was often donated by a local landowner. It was also the responsibility of the district committee to appoint a teacher. In the early days it was usual for these teachers to be recruited overseas however later on they came from one of the teachers training colleges in New Zealand. The committee was also required to fix the teacher's salary, pay

[4] See the copy of a letter from the Education Board to Hekeao settlement regarding the opening of a school later known as Anama

for books and equipment, set the school fees and, if required, with the sanction of the Education Board, impose or remit a rate.

The education district would initially cover a wide area around the proposed site of the school and its declaration, following approval by the regional board, would be gazetted. Once another settlement formed a school committee they in turn would apply for a district to be declared and often this would involve the redrawing of one or more other districts. It is therefore not unusual to find educational reports listing a district as having been declared several times in a relatively short period. Some examples of this situation are those of the Ashburton main school whose district was declared in July 1874 and again in December 1878. Carleton first declared in 1874 under went changes in 1897 and again in 1918; Gebbie's Valley declared in 1871 and 1896 under Akaroa county and in 1918 under the Middle Ward, while Governor's Bay, which was declared in 1876, was in 1886 split into two new districts, Charteris Bay and Teddington.

In many cases the local community raised the entire money to pay for the building of the school, while in others the Education Board aided with the cost of the school building. When looking at histories of many of the rural schools it is evident just how much the community contributed to the establishment of a school. In Leeston, for example, at a meeting of householders which was called on the 19th of March

1867 they heard that for every £50 raised locally for the building the Board would give £150, plus three-quarters of the teacher's salary of £100 with the balance to come from school fees (Graham & Chapple, 1965. p.161). In Templeton in 1872 a Mr William White collected subscriptions for one-sixth of the cost of buildings, plus £20 to cover the cost of furniture (Popple, 1953. p.150). While in Saltwater Creek in 1864 the settlers bought a section on the Northport side of the Creek for £50, raised £70 for a schoolroom and were given a grant of £150. Unfortunately the school was badly damaged by a flood in 1868 and closed (Hawkins, 1957. p.355).

Perhaps the most typical school establishment was that of

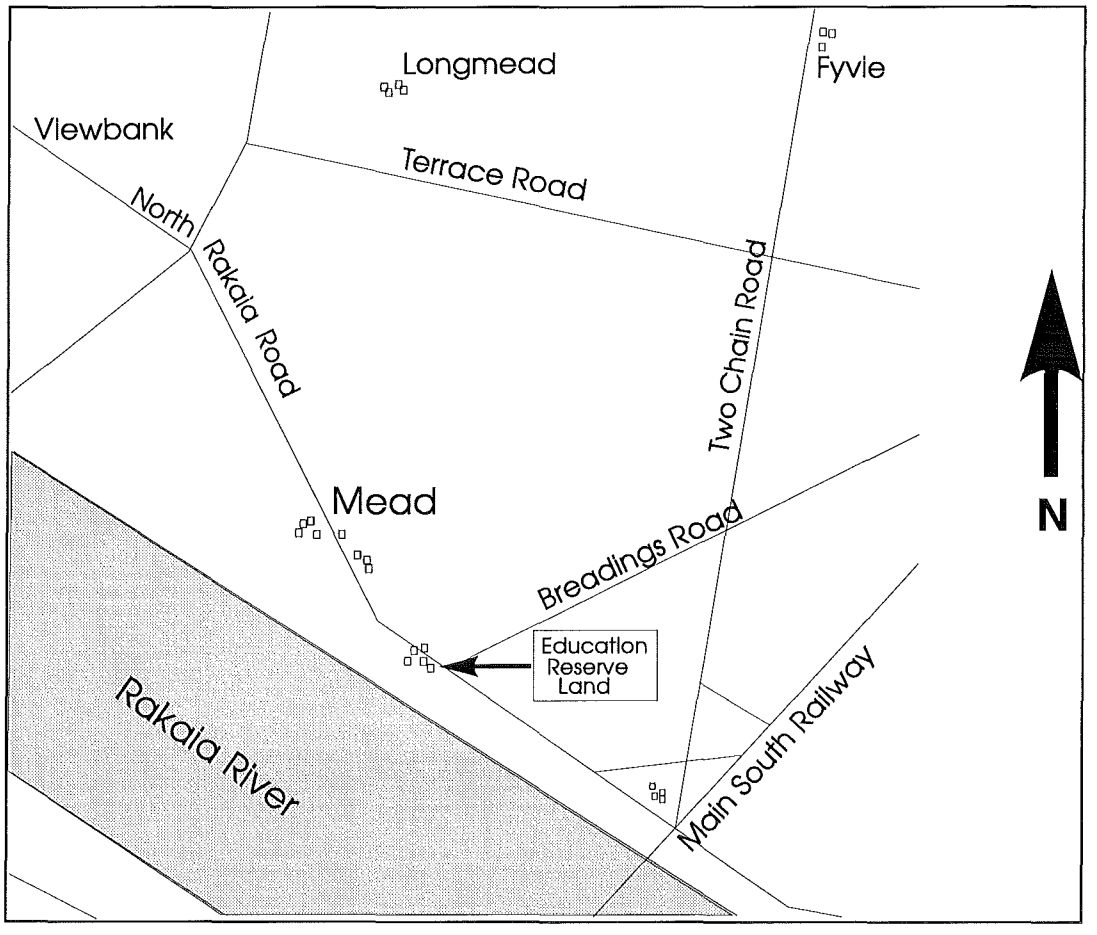

FIGURE 4-5 : Map of the Mead area

Fernside. Despite the land, some 20 acres, being donated this relatively poor area was unable to raise the needed funds to build the school room and house. Realising the problem the Board, in lieu of money, accepted its equivalent in labour and the school opened in 1866 with 44 pupils and became one of the best equipped in the Province. The original cob building was replaced in 1879 and this in turn was replaced in 1902 with a new school complete with a swimming pool (Hawkins, 1957. p.356).

These were fairly typical of the rural schools opened at this time with much of the land either purchased by the community or in most cases being donated. At Mount Grey Downs an acre was purchased from the Hiatts' farm by a Mr Thompson and then given to the school committee (Hawkins, 1957. p.357). Mr. G. H. Moore of Glenmark gave a site of two acres for the Omihi school (Cyclopedia, 1903. p.545). When land was reserved for schools it was sometimes in the wrong position, as was the case at Mead. Originally the school was to be built on reserved land which was good for those living on the lower terrace areas but not for those on the upper areas who wanted the school to be on a section near to the Terrace. During a public meeting J. McIlraith offered the solution by way of a section half way between (Mackie, p.50). This problem of siting rural schools was fairly common and led to W. L. Edge in his school inspectors report of 1885 to remark that "it is very difficult to decide on the best sites for school in some country districts, owing to the frequent and unexpected

changes of population" (AJHR, 1885. E.-1B. p.30). In Littledene after the local mill closed the layout of the village changed and shifted but the schools remained in the same place and a new central site was needed. In this case the Education Board agreed to consolidate the two existing schools and establish a new school. The Board gave six acres of land and the community added another four (Somerset, 1938. p.74)[5].

One of the most unusual school establishments was that of Barrhill a community which like the city of Christchurch was well planned, see figure 4-6. In 1870 John Cathcart Watson took over an area of land and planned the village to reproduce his home in Scotland. Among the 28 sections shown on his plans were two for the school and a teacher's house, which were eventually built on two acres donated by J. C. Watson (Irwin and Cairns, 1983. pp.6-7). Unlike Barrhill most schools came about as people settled in an area and held meetings to tap the feelings of the population, there were however other exceptions. Some schools grew up due to the needs of an individual, i.e. the need of a large landowner for labour, such as the Whiterock and Horsley Downs estates. With the population growth both within the Province and beyond, the demand for food increased and Canterbury was ideal to act as a major supplier. While many of the farms were unsuitable for cropping they were ideal for grazing and

[5] Although Littledene is not in the study area it is an excellent example of the typical rural community.

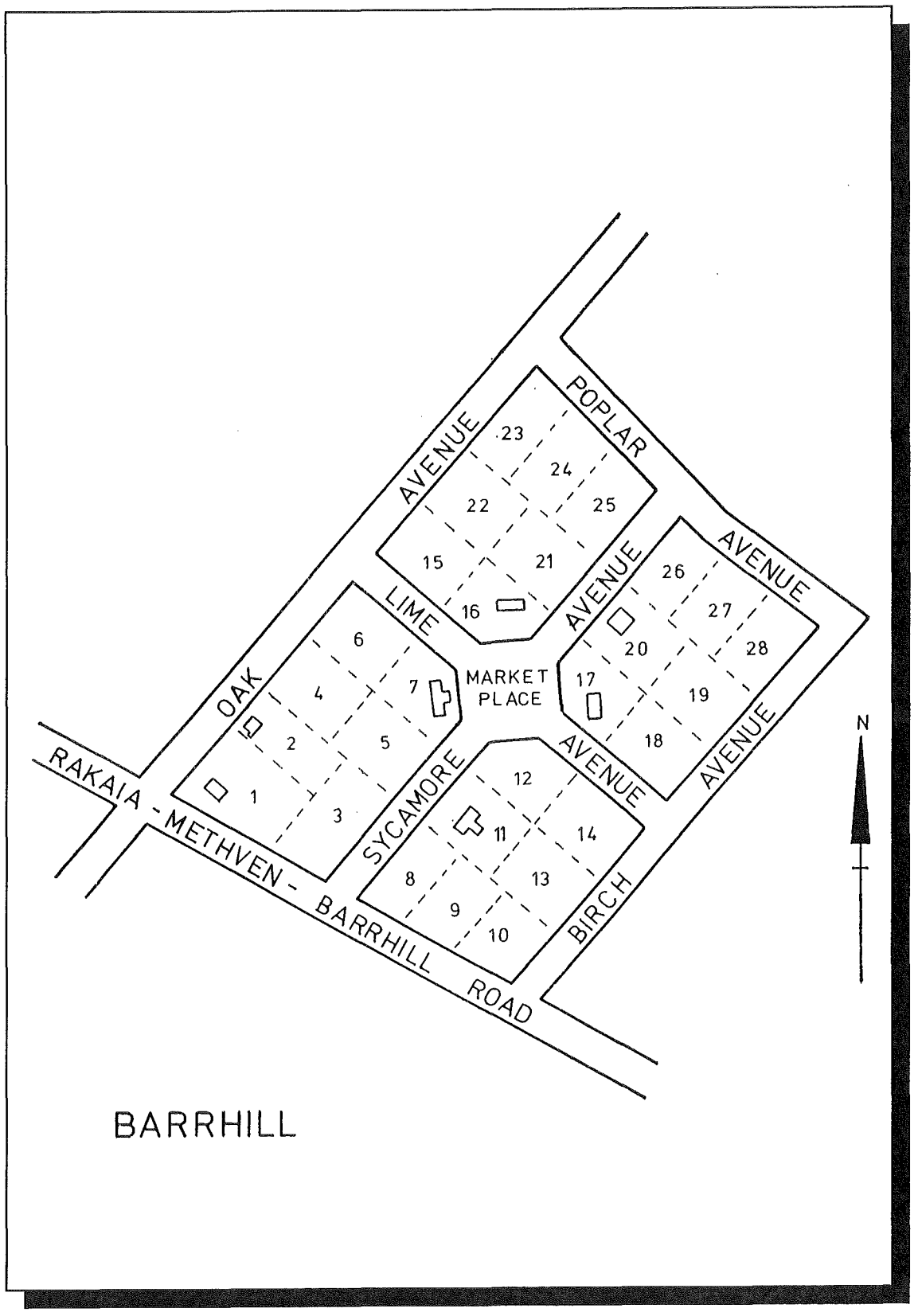

FIGURE 4-6 : The layout of the Barrhill township. Lots 17 and 20 were for the school.

SOURCE : Centenary of Barrhill, 1977.

so large sheep and cattle herds built up. With these labour intensive land uses the estates found they needed to provide some facilities to attract good farm labour. The Whiterock school, built mainly for the children from Horsford and Whiterock Downs, opened in 1915 but suffered from the advance of farming technology, which saw a huge reduction in the need for labour, and so it closed in 1930. Likewise Horsley Downs was opened in 1902 in a school built to hold 30 pupils, although its initial average attendance was only 13 it did reach an average of 54 in 1926 when it was consolidated with Hawarden.

In Canterbury several schools were built by Government departments in connection with special civil engineering projects. One of the biggest was that of the Lake Coleridge power scheme which was begun in 1911. The school was built in 1913, during the early construction phase, by the Public Works Department and consisted of one classroom designed to hold 25 pupils. During the second phase of construction, around 1919, the roll rose from around 25 to 45 and the school was bought by the Canterbury Education Board who introduced a second teacher and made improvements. As the construction gangs moved out in 1926 the roll fell back to under 20 pupils and the school reverted to the single teacher status (Hart, 1948. p.47). Other similar schools were those of Claverley and Aniseed Creek, both opened in 1937, and

Oaro[6], all of which were built by the Public Works Department in connection with the construction of the main trunk railway. Although many of the men were single some did have families and educational facilities were important for the children and in some cases the adults.

As the population increased at faster and faster rates, both in New Zealand and in Canterbury the number of schools increased at a fairly comparative rate. Figures 4-7 and 4-8 show those population increases. In the case of the overall New Zealand population the Maori exclusive figures for 1926 were 1,344,469 while those including the Maori were 1,408,139. The Canterbury figures were 213,890 without and 215,079 with the Maori (Bloomfield, 1984. p.54).

Table 4-2 shows the number of schools opened in the period from 1875 to 1940. From the slow beginnings the number of schools grew to a peak between 1926 and 1930 and then began to decrease as consolidations and the effects of the rural to urban migration took hold.

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[6] Although existing, extensions were added by the Works Department to allow for the families of the railway gangs.

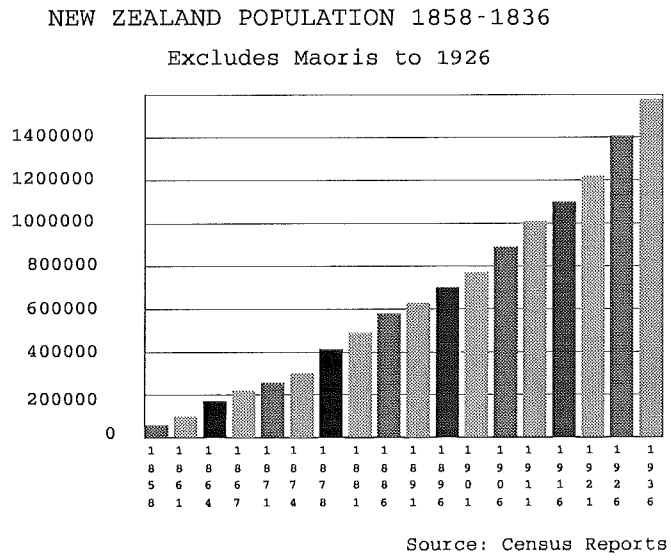

FIGURE 4-7 : New Zealand Population Growth

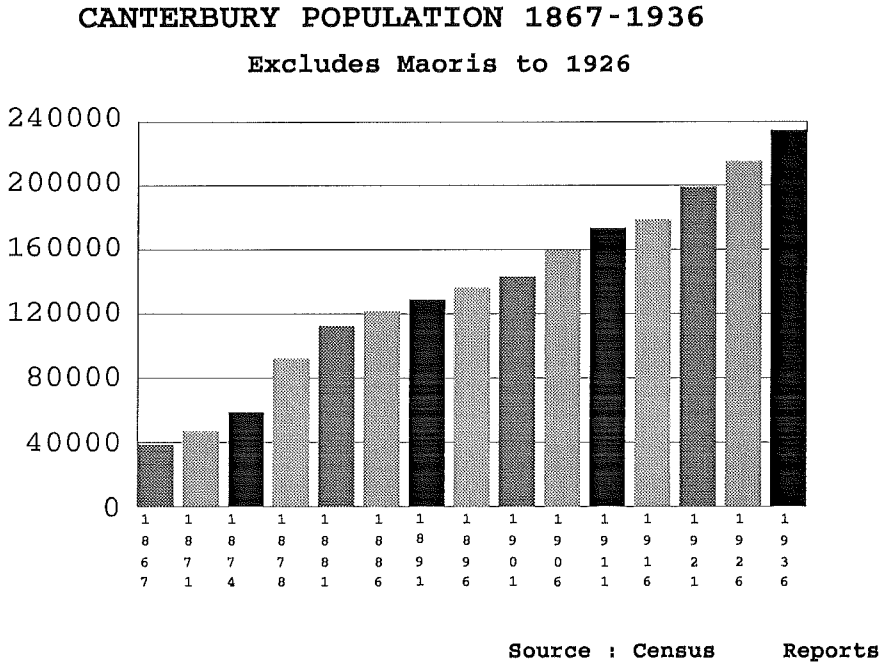

FIGURE 4-8 : Canterbury Population growth

TABLE 4-2 : Number of Schools in New Zealand 1875-1940

Year ending December	State Schools	Private Schools
1875	599	182
1880	836	278
1885	1,021	280
1890	1,200	298
1895	1,464	298
1900	1,764	304
1905	1,806	291
1910	2,096	318
1915	2,338	310[7]
1920	2,437	221
1925	2,582	285
1930	2,601	306
1935	2,502	310
1940	2,204	306

State Schools = Public schools operated by Boards of Education

Private Schools = Mostly Roman Catholic schools, with small numbers of Church Maori schools and others

SOURCE : Bloomfield, 1984. p.112

Once a school was opened in an area the settlers in nearby realised the value of establishing a school and therefore pushed for one in their area. As has been shown this usually involved a householders meeting and lots of enthusiasm from the locals, however this was not always the case. For example

[7] Changes in classification and registration under Education Act 1914

a school had been opened at Rangiora and the next apparent settlement due for a school was Southbrook. Although Rangiora was fairly close it was too far for some children and therefore many were staying away and receiving no education. No action had been taken as many Southbrook people felt that with the proximity of Rangiora and in particular the cost commitment required, another school was unnecessary. However under an 1871 Ordinance the Education Board was allowed to declare a new district and to levy a rate of 6d in the £1. With the residents's refusal to voluntarily go along with its request the Board levied a rate of 11d in the pound on all rateable property and ensured that a committee was somewhat reluctantly elected. The school was finally opened in the Wesleyan Chapel in February 1874, with the school building being opened amid fanfare in October 1874 (Hawkins, 1957. p.360).

A school which did not fare so well was that of Happy Valley which opened as an aided school in early 1897, but was closed by the end of September due to "insufficient support" (AJHR, E-1, 1898). This however was an anomaly as in every other case the establishment of a school was welcomed and fought for and it was not until the school roll numbers had dropped to an unsustainable level that many settlers allowed their schools to close.

ATTENDANCE

School attendance was a major factor in the life span of many rural schools and a full list of average attendances can be found in the appendix. Even after the pivotal 1877 Education Act attendance was a semi-voluntary action. Although it was intended that every child should be educated, the final say on the attendance regulations was in the hands of the school committees who rarely enforced any existing rules. Part of the problem was that most schools charged a fee and although small it did have a major effect on large families. A Nelson system adopted, by Canterbury in 1871, saw a capitation tax levied on parents and this aided in encouraging better attendance. While the 1877 Act allowed committees to issue attendance certificates which also helped, but perhaps one of the most encouraging actions was the 1878 Education Department announcement of a special grant. This was based on the average daily attendance and the 10/- per head was to be distributed to school committees as part of the school fund (Cumming, 1978. p.100). This again saw a flurry of school openings and figure 4-9 shows the situation in 1874, three years prior to the Education Act, and in 1885, sone eight years after.

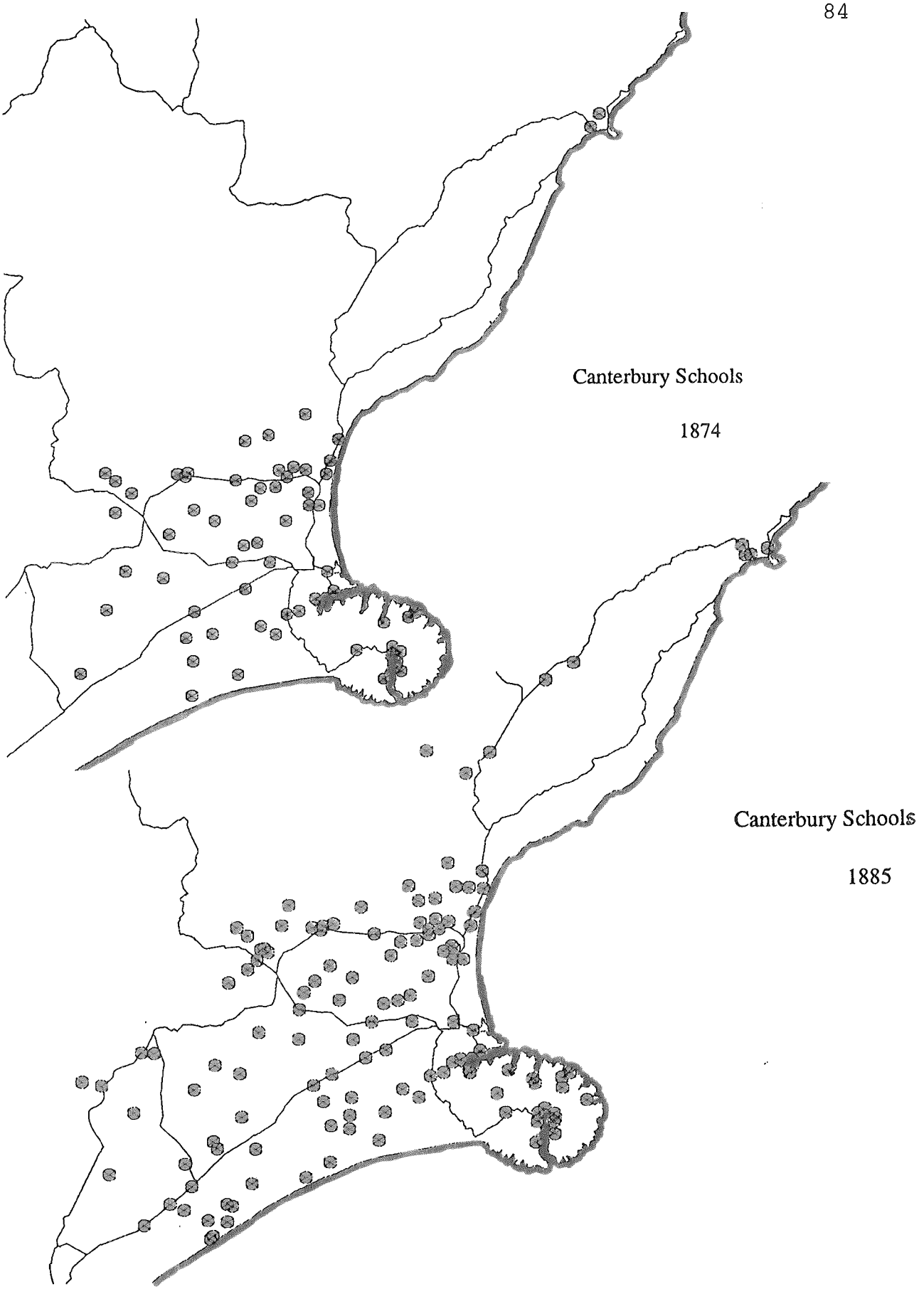

FIGURE 4-9 : Schools open in 1874 and 1885

To back these incentives, under the 1877 Act, the aspect of compulsory education commenced on 1 January 1878 under the clause, in the 1877 Act, which said that every child

> "not less than seven or more than thirteen years of age and living within two miles by road of a public school had to attend a school for at least one half of the period in each year during which the school was open"
>
> (Cumming, 1978. pp.103-4)

However, once again, it was up to the school committee to vote to enforce the rule. If they did enforce it they could, with the help of the police, take the parent to court, but in reality while absenteeism was rife in some areas few were convicted. The 1894 School Attendance Act placed compulsion on 9-13 year olds, again within two miles of the school, but stated that it had to be for at least six times a week with morning and afternoon sessions being considered separately. This was followed by a second Act in 1901 which increased the age to 14 and the 1914 Act which said that every child between 7 and 14 was to attend school. By this point the value of education was beyond dispute and few needed encouragement to send any fit and healthy child to school.

By 1914 nearly every child was within easy reach of a school and in the majority of cases some form of conveyance could be arranged for many living away from a school. In fact the Act banned, except in exceptional cases, the establishment of a new school within four miles of an existing one and spoke of school closures

> "If it appeared to the Minister that the children attending a school could conveniently attend any other school or be enrolled in a correspondence school he could direct the particular board to close the school."
> (Cumming, 1978. p.196)

The closing of a school however was not taken lightly and had ramifications beyond those on the pupils.

SCHOOL RETRENCHMENT

Most rural communities had fought hard and poured a lot of money into their local schools and were not willing to release their grip on the education of their families. The small land owners often needed the children to work on the farm, especially at planting and harvest time or during the lambing and calving seasons. Most hoped their sons would take over the property one day and therefore some saw little use for education beyond the basic levels. In both cases they wanted their children in a close by school as without the need to travel more time could be spent working. For the farm labourer the children could provide an extra wage, which in the bad times was essential, while for the small landowner they could save the cost of outside wages. The larger landowner was able to send the children to a private school in Christchurch or Nelson or, in the early period, the sons were usually sent to Britain for their schooling or had private tutors. This meant that their concerns were less personal although they did, in the main, support their community.

Figure 4-10 gives an indication of the sequence of events which led to the retrenchment of rural schools. The factor of population change was probably the most relevant variable, during much of the first half of the study period. In the early period of settlement, as the immigrants spread around the region, the population increased and in most cases this also saw the influx of service industries, e.g. blacksmiths, coachbuilders, doctors and storeowners. For a time this would increase as the surrounding land was cleared for either pastoral or crop farming, however once the land use was established many of the labourers moved on. This situation also existed with regard to transport developments, as the roads were upgraded or the railways built an area saw an inflow of people from the construction gangs. Once the gangs organised another base some of the service businesses also moved on. As shown in chapter six transport had a major influence on the population of a settlement. Where a transport node was sited a town often grew, e.g. Springfield, but where the transport system bypassed a town it lost a major part of its population base.

The rural population changes led to falling school rolls and except in the most remote areas, school closures and consolidations. In some cases schools were also closed due to the lack of teachers as most preferred to be in the city or in a major centre close to services and a larger school. With most coming from Britain they were not used to the comparative isolation of life in rural New Zealand. Other

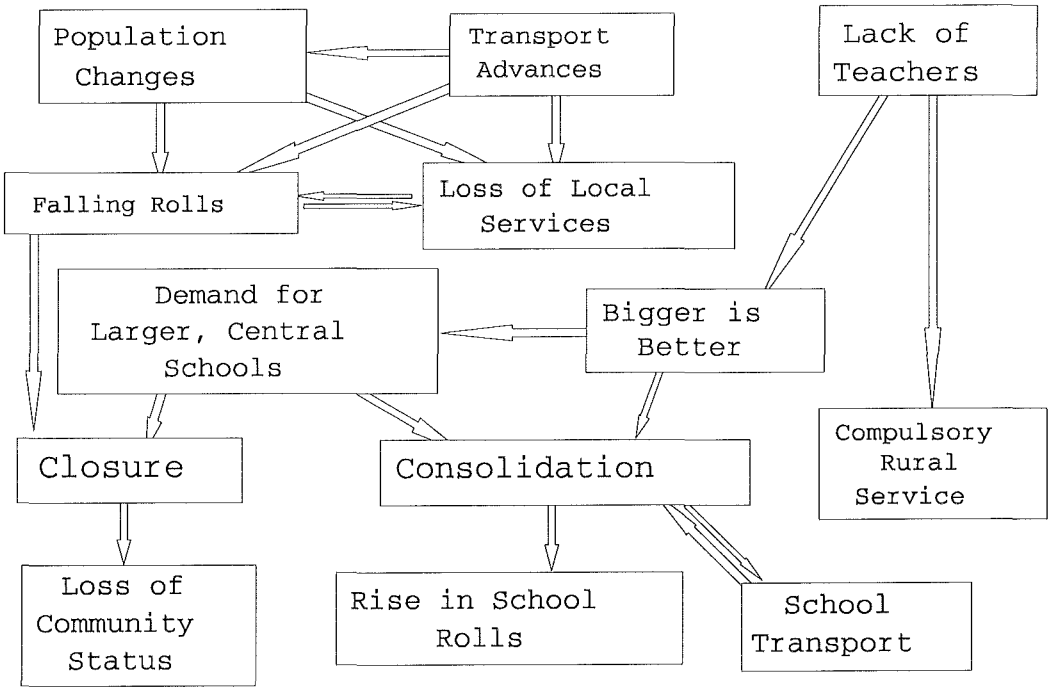

FIGURE 4-10 : Factors leading to and consequences of school retrenchment.

SOURCE : The Author

teachers also liked the opportunities, available in larger schools, for subject specialization and promotion. The one or two teacher schools required the teaching of all ages, all levels and all subjects, except needlework which where there was a male teacher was usually taught by either the master's wife or a local woman. This problem was, in part, solved by a resolution of the North Canterbury Education Board which read

> "That no teacher hereinafter appointed to a school whose staff consists of three or more adult teachers shall be eligible for promotion .... unless he or she has served for at least two years as 1) head teacher, or 2) in sole charge, or 3) as mistress in a school whose staff consists of not more than two adult teachers."
> (AJHR, 1909. E.-1. p.58)

This was extended on a national basis in 1949 with the "country service" regulations which tied a teachers salary to a certain step on the salary scale if they did not have three years of rural service.

Throughout much of the study period there was a belief that 'bigger is better' in education. While much of this stemmed from the general community it also came from the ideas of economists who emphasised 'economies of scale'. The parents usually wanted the best possible education for their children and looked jealously at the schools in the larger centres. They saw that the larger town and city schools had markedly better facilities, more up to date equipment, the ability to offer a greater range of subjects and better opportunities for advancement to high education. The economists saw the larger schools as, on a per pupils basis, cheaper to build and maintain, less expensive to heat and with greater use cheaper overall to equip. With these outlooks the demand for larger and more central schools, coupled with the improvements in the speed, comfort and availability of transport, led to the closure and consolidation of many rural schools.

As figure 4-10 shows this had three main outcomes on the region. Firstly, a rise in some school rolls as other small schools closed and were consolidated. Secondly, a loss of status for some small communities, (see chapter five) and finally the development of the school bus service, (dealt

with in chapter six).

FALLING ROLLS

Many schools experienced the problem of falling rolls during the period and this was more marked in the rural areas. With the development of transport and farming technologies the need for service industries for transport and the requirement for a large farming workforce decreased. In Europe the industrial revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries saw large rural to urban migrations, in New Zealand much of this occurred after the turn of the 20th century. Another reason for a falling roll was also due to the opening of a new school, e.g. when Fyvie school opened in 1913 it reduced the roll of Mead school from an average of 29 in 1912 to 23 in 1913. In a similar situation was the Mason's Flat school. Opened in 1881 for some years it served the needs of Hawarden and Horsley Downs with an attendance of 36 in 1901, 33 in 1902, a drop to 25 for the next three years and a low of 20 in 1910. Horsley Downs opened in 1902 with 13, increasing to 19 in 1904 and rising to 44 in 1913. One early example is that of Little Port Cooper. This bay situated on the eastern side of Lyttelton Harbour was originally a pilot station for ships entering and leaving the harbour. By 1878 it had a permanent population of 19 and so a school was opened in 1883, however with a falling population it was closed two years later.

Some schools opened and closed several times during a

relatively short life-time. The school at Lyttelton Heads opened in June 1917 with an average attendance of 5 in its first year, it closed in 1920 reopening in 1923 again with 5 pupils. The reasons for this are unknown, however with small rolls it is easy to realise that it would need only one fairly large family to leave the area or to complete their education for the roll to drop below sustainable levels.

Leamington school, opened in late 1896, shows the fairly typical graph line of many small rural schools with an

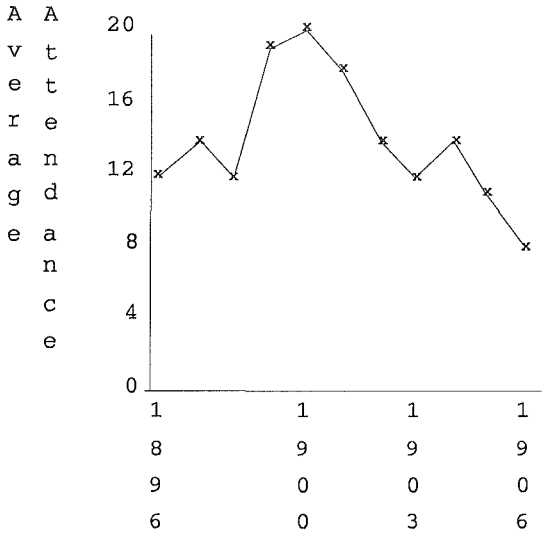

FIGURE 4-11 : Leamington School Average Attendances 1869-1906

SOURCE : The Author

initial rise and fall followed by a sharp rise to a peak and then as more schools open a steady fall. As this fall increased and the costs rose the school then had two possible actions; close and consolidate or become a part-time school.

Butcher described part-time schools as being two small schools placed under the teaching control of a highly paid teacher who works on a six day roster of alternate days, half weeks or alternate weeks at each school (Butchers, 1930. p.333). The part-time school, while not common, did exist in North Canterbury in the Banks Peninsula area and also in the Oxford area. In Oxford there was an original site chosen for the school but it was regarded as being too far for many of the children on the peripheries. To attempt to solve the problem the school was conducted in two buildings with the one teacher travelling between (Oxford, 1929. p.58). The second pair of schools were in Governor's Bay South and involved Charteris Bay and Gebbie's Pass Road. All the part-time schools were gone by the end of 1884 (AJHR, 1885. E.-1. p.84).

In some of the more remote areas the building of schools was uneconomic as there were only perhaps one or two children of elementary school age. So in 1922 the Government began the Correspondence School to cater for these pupils, many of whom had previously missed out on any form of education for most of the year. There were also itinerant teachers who visited these remote areas between one and four times a year,

depending on the weather and the number of children involved. These teachers also became involved in the Correspondence school by acting as, in some cases, parental aids and as the eyes of the school tutors in Wellington.

CONSOLIDATIONS

In the United Kingdom it is called school "reorganisation while in many other parts of the world , including the United States and New Zealand, it is referred to as school "consolidation". In most countries, for the rural sector, it means that small often one-roomed, one teacher schools within a certain radius are closed in favour of a larger centralised one. This school is seen as being well equipped and staffed and the whole system is by necessity based on a network of some form of transportation (Lee, 1961. p.65). Included in the philosophy of bigger is better there is also a convincing argument, put forward in the main by accountants and economists, that the factors of the "economies of scale" are as important in education as in manufacturing.

In the case of the schooling system these economies include the cost of building, repairs and maintenance and salaries, what is often not taken into account however is the cost of transport, which may well offset the savings gained (Sher and Tompkins, 1977. p.45). Also often not included are the non-monetary costs which reflect on the pupils, parents and on the rural communities.

For the children the effects of consolidation cover a wide spectrum and include

- Having to get up early
- Travel time
- Tiredness which leads to them being less attentive and therefore learning less
- Harder for disabled or sickly children to travel
- With distance between them it is more difficult for a sick or emotionally upset child to receive parental comfort
- Because of bus timetables the child is unable to take part in extra-curricular activities

<u>For the parents</u>

- More travel time = less time for farm work therefore more absenteeism[8]
- Parents less able to join school activities or visit the school

<u>For the community and the school</u>

- Less opportunity for community involvement
- Larger schools = easier spread of disease
- Because of distance from the school the ability to attract new settlers diminishes
- The value of homes in the community centre falls
- Some services are lost
- The child's interest and loyalty is in part transferred to the school's centre
- The local clubs and traditions disappear or are weakened
- A pivotal member of the community, the school teacher, is lost[9]

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[8] Although not so relevant today, during the period of this study this was an important factor for many families

[9] The last three items are from Lee, 1961. p.65

Many of these outcomes were not initially realised when consolidation was first muted in New Zealand. In the United States some consolidations had been carried out in Massachusetts as early as 1869 and by 1908 were being used in 18 states. In the United States the advantages were seen as being chiefly educational, with the children moving from a one-roomed school, often under an uncertified teacher, to a large school under a trained and certified teacher. Also it was seen as aiding in the "widening of mental outlook from mixing with a larger number of children coming from other places" (AJHR, 1908, E-15).

Consolidations in New Zealand began, with the use of horse drawn buses, in Otago and with the introduction of the motor vehicle the possibility of the widespread closure of small schools was born.

There were however a number of problems not the least being trying to convince the rural communities of its overall advantages. In a report to the Education Department and the Auckland Board, T.U. Wells gave many of the advantages he had seen gained in the United States

- Enough pupils and taxable property to make it practicable to build and equip a good school
- Better salaries and improved conditions which meant well trained and experienced teachers
- Improved conditions, libraries, playgrounds, supervision and leadership
- Greater returns for money spent

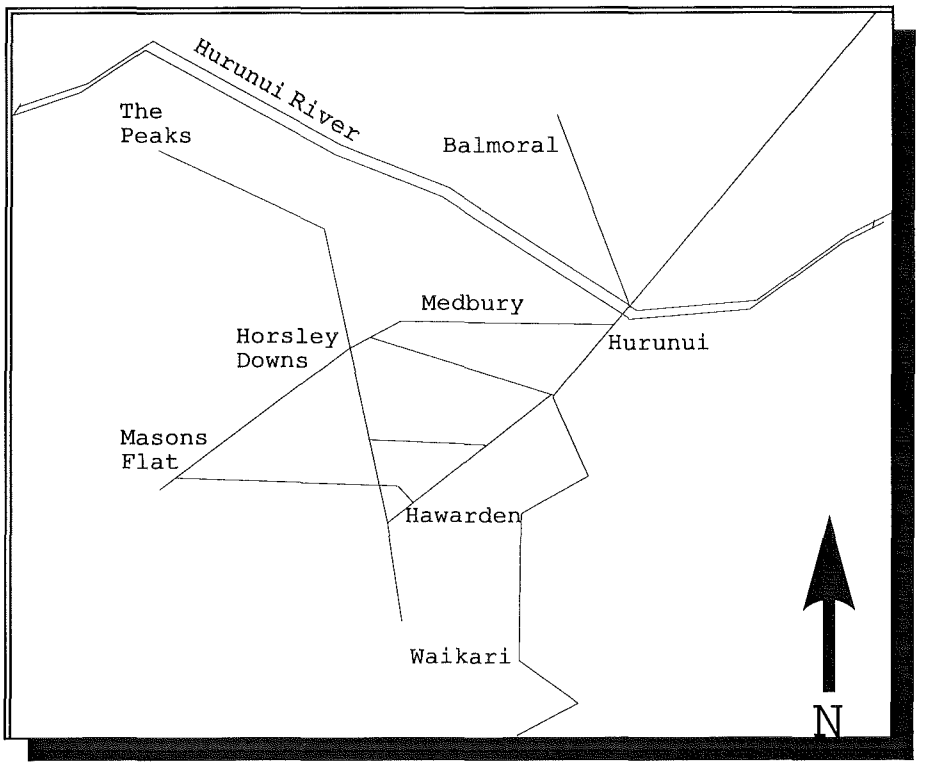

FIGURE 4-12 : Map showing the schools consolidated into Hawarden

in fact "he regarded the consolidated rural school as the most remarkable educational development that he had seen in the course of his travels" (Cumming, 1978. p.225).

In Canterbury the first consolidations took place in Oxford when the Oxford West school joined with the main Oxford school. Perhaps one of the largest consolidations took place in 1927 at Hawarden when five schools were closed. Those schools were Horsley Downs, Hurunui, Mason's Flat, Medbury and The Peaks and with a total closing average attendance of

140 pupils it would have taken a great deal of organization. This was a growing trend as Hawarden was especially established as a central school, not existing prior to 1927.

In most cases however those accepting the registers of closing schools were already well established. Table 4-2 shows the consolidations which took place during the 1920s, 1930s and 1940s. During the 1940s consolidations were put into suspension due to World War Two but recommenced later and continued into the early 1970s when it was decided that no more could be justified and that the system had reached its optimum.

TABLE 4-3 : Consolidations in North Canterbury to 1940

YEAR	Closing School	Accepting School
1925	Coopers Creek	Oxford
1925	Ashley Gorge	Oxford
1925	Oxford West	Oxford
1925	Carleton	Oxford
1926	Huntingdon	Tinwald
1927	Horsley Downs	Hawarden
1927	Mason's Flat	Hawarden
1927	The Peaks	Hawarden
1927	Hurunui	Hawarden
1927	Medbury	Hawarden
1928	Winchmore	Allenton
1928	Domett	Mackenzie
1928	Elgin	Ashburton East
1930	Balcairn	Sefton
1931	Ataahua	Tai Tapu

YEAR	Closing School	Accepting School
1931	Longbeach	Eiffelton
1931	Motukarara	Tai Tapu
1931	Spotswood	Mackenzie
1932	Gebbie's Valley	Tai Tapu
1936	Dromore	Fairton
1936	Upper Selwyn	Dunsandel
1936	Selwyn	Dunsandel
1936	Newlands	Fairton
1936	Lees Valley	Snowdale
1937	Greenstreet	Ashburton
1937	Onuku	Akaroa
1937	Maronan	Hind's
1937	Longbay Road	Akaroa
1937	Ashton	Flemington
1937	Spencerville	Belfast
1937	Takamatua	Akaroa
1937	Robinson's Bay	Akaroa
1938	Kirikiri	Oxford
1938	Doyleston	Leeston
1938	Seafield	Ashburton East
1938	Barrhill	Lauriston
1938	Pendarves	Ashburton
1938	Irwell	Leeston
1939	Puhi Puhi	Mangamaunu
1939	Kaituna	Tai Tapu
1939	Little Rakaia	Southbridge
1940	Lakeside	Leeston
1940	Ealing	Hind's
1940	Riverside	Ashburton

Reading through the Education Boards yearly reports it is

easy to see how the system of consolidation and the conveying of pupils slowly gained acceptance in the Canterbury region. In 1932 the report says that

> "The services ... are running satisfactorily and it is probable that if economic conditions were more stable other districts would adopt the scheme in preference to operating small schools, when there are larger and better equipped institutions within easy reach."

While many of the administrative and financial managers of the schooling system readily accepted the closures and consolidation many parents were finding the transition more difficult. The 1935 report states that

> "It is evident that parents are beginning to realise the benefits derived from consolidation. In the near future it is hoped that several small schools will unit in this way and thus provide improved educational facilities."
>
> (p.5)

As table 4-3 shows 1936 with four, 1937 with five, and 1938 with six consolidations, were the busiest years and the comments of the Chairman of the Education Board in the 1938 report reflects what many educators felt

> "Signs are not wanting that an intelligent interest is still being taken in consolidation. ... changes involving the closing of schools have taken place without bitterness. Generally, gratification is felt at the improvement in the attitude towards this question. In a great many instances requests for consolidation have emanated from parents, not only of the centre where

> amalgamation was to be effected, but of contributing districts. This healthy desire is what is most earnestly wished for. It brings with materialization a "spiritual" co-operation which neither legislation nor persuasion can exalt or perfect".
>
> (p.6)

So by this time, it appears that most people had accepted the educational benefits of consolidation and also that of the conveying of children. However some saw the loss of the school as being detrimental to the area as, in some cases, it lost its social centre.

When the schools closed and in many cases consolidated the buildings were often used to extend the accepting schools or to aid the expanding rolls and 'roles' of other schools. One such example is that of Hampstead school which was opened in 1886 to supplement the lone school in Ashburton County (later known as Ashburton Borough). Hampstead was built as a side school but as its numbers grew it became independent. In 1923 its name was changed to that of Ashburton East as it was said that as it was part of Ashburton "by the new name the location of the school would be recognised" (Hampstead school, 1966. p.7). As figure 4-13 shows the school was added to over the years including the use of the old Winchmore school building which was brought in and remodelled.

This was a fairly common occurrence with many schools being

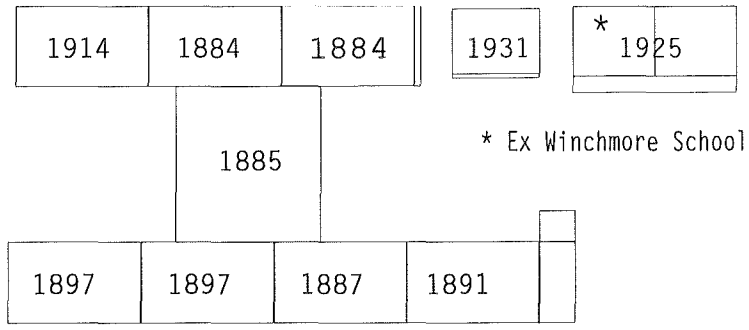

FIGURE 4-13 : Plan of Hampstead school showing additions made 1884-1925

moved, the largest recorded one being that of Pendarves school. The moving of the 50 ton, 53 foot by 24 foot building with a 15 foot stud, was begun on June 16th 1896 and was completed, despite the winter mud, on June 29th (Chertsey school, 1978. [n.p.]). While not all were of these dimensions many schools were utilised to help others, especially during periods of shortages and depression in the 1920s and 1930s.

CONCLUSION

Education was a 'service' which most people saw as the way up the socio-economic ladder for their children and, as most of the founders were from the highly educated upper classes, they intended from the first settlement of the colony that the building schools was paramount. That importance was not just for the benefit of the individual but for the future of the colony, as education was regarded as a way to curb crime and to advance the economic future of any developing country.

The Canterbury Charter had stated that one-sixth of the Association's income should be set aside for education and ecclesiastical purposes. This link was due to the church having been the main supplier of education in Britain and this continued in Canterbury for a short period before the people, in part, took the mantel on themselves.

As the population spread and grew the demand for schools also increased and so many communities met together, gave land and donated money and time to build them. Unlike in some of the North Island provinces the opening of schools in Canterbury was supported by the Provincial Council and all schools had to be approved by them. This saw a marked increase in the numbers of schools in the region and a factor reflected in the maps shown in this chapter. As the new transport inovations arrived in New Zealand many small schools lost much of their rolls to near by larger schools. By 1924 the system of consolidations had begun and went ahead at a fast pace until the Second World War and continued in the 1950s.

The school was often the only publicly owned building in the communities and so quickly gained importance as a focus of the area, a factor dealt with in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

"HEART OF THE VILLAGE"

> "Although the history of Greendale has its own peculiar character, it is in common with most New Zealand country villages in that the school humbly serves as the hub and focal point of the district..." (Adams, 1972. [n.p.])

Mention has already been made of how the school was of major importance to it surrounding area and that it was often seen as a focal point of permanence in the community. This chapter will expand on these points by looking at the non-educational uses made of the school building and how for many communities it became the "heart of the village".

In many early New Zealand settlements the only community owned building was that of the public school. It acted not just as an educational establishment, offering day and night classes, but also as the social and "spiritual" centre of the town. The school often acted as the postal centre, contained the library, the local museum and acted as the headquarters of many local and regional clubs and organisations. Even after the school closed down and was offered for sale by the Education Department in many cases the local people bought the building or in other areas had it donated for their use.

When a person arrives in a new town or city they slowly build

up a mind map of the area around their accommodation. Most try to locate a central, well known point of reference and learn to find their way from that point. In central Christchurch, for example, this is often centred on the Anglican Cathedral, in the suburbs many use the Port Hills, while in a small settlement this has usually been the church or the school. In the early days of Canterbury the school building was often regarded as being more important than the church, as regardless of religious beliefs everyone used the school at some point. The church meetings could be held, as many were overseas, in a private home, under canvas, in a barn or in any available building. The school however required a more permanent building as, in most districts, its classes were open five days per week, for approximately four hours and for most months of the years.

As Canterbury was first settled one of the initial requirements was seen as being the school, this was to enable the education classes begun on the immigrant ships to be continued without any substantial break. As has already been detailed the first land based schools were opened in Lyttelton in the Immigration Barracks owned by the Canterbury Association. Once the people had crossed the Port Hills and begun the settlement of the plains, two of the central human psychological needs of religion and education came to the fore. As the churches had long been involved in the educational sector in the United Kingdom it was not surprising that they should continue that responsibility in

New Zealand. Schools could be opened in small wooden buildings which were easy and relatively cheap to erect, and as Colin McGeorge says, unlike in Ireland, where Dominic Behan once wrote

> "that the building of a Roman Catholic chapel was quickly followed by a pub, shops and later a school, because there was no profit in a school"

in New Zealand the school often came first (McGeorge, 1985. p.35).

The school room could be, and was, utilized for many different functions and figure 5-1 shows many of those for which Canterbury rural schools were used.

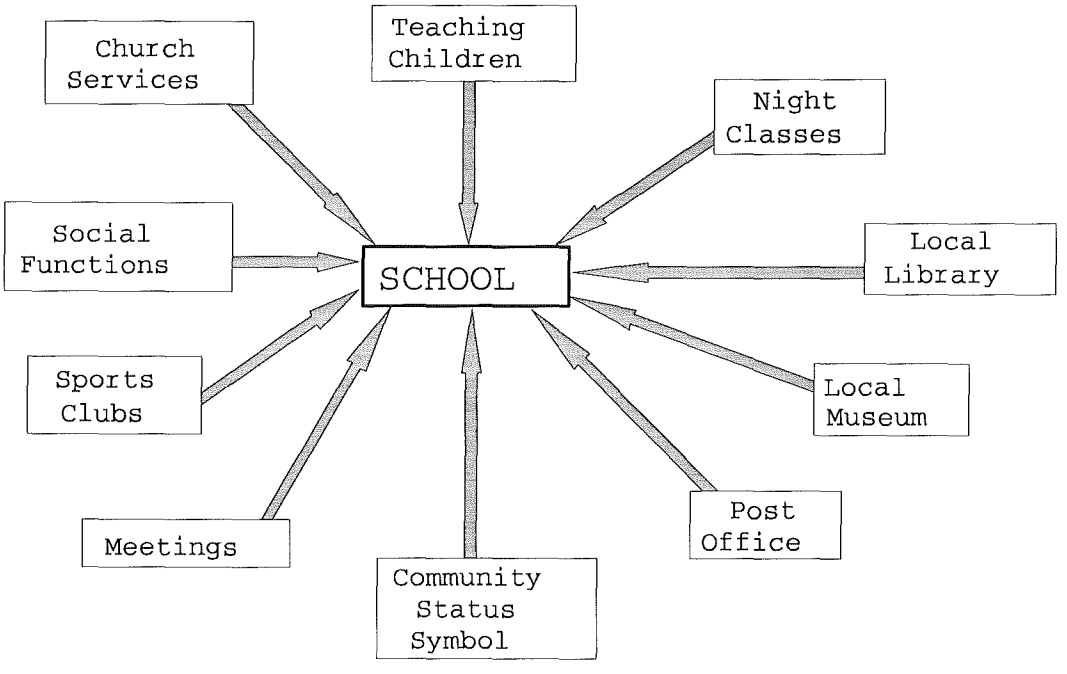

FIGURE 5-1 : The Functions of the rural school
Source : Author

THE CHURCH CONNECTION

The first schools, outside those in Lyttelton and the direct auspices of the Canterbury Association, were established by the churches. In some cases these early schools were held in the churches. For example in the case of Waddington a Memorandum of Agreement was drawn up, on behalf of the trustees of the Brunswick church and signed by the chairman of the Malvern District school, which allowed the use of the church as a school at a rental of five shillings per week. This continued until 1875 when a school building was opened (Popple, 1953. p.151-152).

This was not an isolated case as in a number of areas a school, usually run by one of the denominations, was begun in the church or on sections belonging and adjoining the church, i.e. Amberley school was built on three acres adjoining the Anglican property. In Kaiapoi John Raven of Woodend started classes in the Kaiapoi Anglican church, while in Mackenzie the Reverend Drake, the Wesleyan Minister, held classes in the Methodist church. At Oxford in 1863 the Church of England Mixed School was held in the inter-denominational chapel in High Street. All these schools were in the larger centres which were established early, had fairly large stable populations and in which the various denominations gained early footholds. Outside these towns the churches often arrived only when a number of services were established and, with the need to raise funds, the building of a church was often delayed for some years. In the small rural settlement

what was more usual was that the church services were held in the schools. One fairly typical example being that of Greendale school.

In 1871 a Sunday school was started in Greendale, but it quickly became evident to the parents that the children needed to be taught to read and so a push began to have a day school. By 1872 a site had been chosen and a school with 34 pupils opened however, with no churches and the only public building in the area being the school it was also used by the churches. The Free Methodists and Baptists held two services per month each, while the Primitive Methodists held two services on one Sunday per month and a weekly Sunday afternoon class. In 1875 a library was attached to the school and in May 1876 night classes were established. In addition it was also used by various cultural and sporting clubs, as were most rural schools in Canterbury.

The Rotherham school was used, by both the Church of England and the Presbyterian churches, for Sunday services while Lauriston was utilised by the Church of England for monthly services and for evening Bible classes. Templeton school was used by the Free Methodists, Baptists and Presbyterians for both Sunday schools and church services. From 1880 to 1900 the Glentunnel school was used by the Presbyterians, Methodists and for a short period the Salvation Army (Wilson, 1949. p.90). At Glenroy one of the first decisions of the School Committee was to give permission for "the use of the

school for divine service by payment of one shilling for each service" (Pioneers' Progress, 1989. p.42). Both the Methodists and Anglicans took advantage of this by holding services on alternate Sundays.

Little Akaloa had a large school not just for classes, but also for meetings, social activities and church services (Little Akaloa, 1962. p.5). Here when a new school was built the old building was taken over by the church and in 1882 following additions and alterations it was consecrated as Saint Luke's Church (Little Akaloa, 1962. p.13). Last although not least, Pigeon Bay was used for Sunday services by the Anglicans and Presbyterians until 1899 (Joblin, 1952. n.p.).

Some of the more unusual religious uses for a school were, in 1916, when the Australasian Student Christian Movement held a ten day conference and the Girl's Bible Class held an Easter camp at the Kaiapoi Borough School (Ward, 1973. p.49) and the formation of the Union Church Guild based on Glenroy school (Pioneer's Progress, 1989. p.31).

LIBRARIES AND POST OFFICES

Reading through the *Cyclopedia of New Zealand* it quickly becomes obvious the pride which many places held with regard to the presence of services in their settlements. Most communities list the churches, schools, banks, libraries and the post office as their main buildings. For some areas the

latter items came some years after the foundation of the settlement, especially the bank and the post office which were more commercially driven, while the church, school and library were very much dependent on the support and enthusiasm of the locals. Glentunnel school, in 1880, housed the local library on the school porch as well as acting as the public hall, gymnasium and concert hall (Wilson, 1949. pp.89-93). Okain's Bay also had a library and Pigeon Bay acted as the head-quarters for the district circulating library consisting of 50-60 volumes, and from 1875 the Greendale local library was attached to its school. Perhaps the largest example was at Eyreton school with a library of some 2,000 volumes and 30 subscribers being conducted in part of the school building (Cyclopedia, 1903. p.444). Rotherham had the public library connected to the school, while the original Waiau school building became the local library (Cyclopedia, 1903. pp.592-593).

One of the backbones of any rural community is the ability to communicate with other centres, e.g. to order goods, keep in touch with family or to arrange for the sale of their produce, and much of this was, prior to the telephone, by mail. Once again as the most well known and central point of a community in many areas the school was also the postal centre.

In common with many school based post offices, at Greenstreet it was the teacher or his wife who acted as the postal

officer. Glenroy, as did Halkett, acted as a drop off point for both incoming and outgoing mail. At Glenroy, in 1889, Mr. Birkett of Whitecliffs left the incoming mail in a box inside the school door and the children would then deliver it. The outgoing mail was taken to the school and once the box was cleared one of the children was detailed to meet Mr. Birkett at the foot of the saddle (Pioneers' Progress, 1989. p.24). In some settlements the local post office was conducted not in the school itself but in the school house, as was the case at Waikuku.

ENTERTAINMENTS, SOCIETIES AND SPORTS

G.T. Alley says in his 1931 thesis that "Generally the disappearance of community organized attempts at culture is in inverse ratio to the distance of the place from the city ..." and that part of this was caused by the invention of the motor car, the radio set and the moving picture which were the "inventions re-making leisure" (p.16). Prior to, and in some cases, especially in the more remote areas, long after, the arrival of these three inventions the main entertainment centre was the public school.

Despite government aid fundraising has always been a major concern of schools, be it for equipment, books, repairs or a special outing or treat such as the school picnic. This fundraising could be accomplished through a simple collection among parents and householders, but more often took the form of some type of entertainment function held at the school.

The nature of these functions varied from tea-parties to dances, concerts to card evenings and from lectures to sports competitions.

In some cases the school was fully utilized through out its history, in others it was not until the installation of lamps that many used it at night. In Chertsey, prior to the opening of the hall, most sports and social clubs used the school especially after the lamps were installed in 1897. They also held dances, concerts and card evenings in order to raise funds for the school (History of Chertsey, 1978. n.p.). The Red Cross and various literary and dramatic societies used the rural school for their meeting. Most also used the school room for their plays, as did the Glentunnel Amateur Dramatic Club as early as 1880 (Wilson, 1949. p.89). At lake Coleridge the Loyal Coleridge Society, also known as the Oddfellows, formed at the school in 1883 (Wilson, 1949. p.93).

In the same way as they charged for the use of the school for church services, the Glenroy School Committee also charged for the holding of dances, entertainments and meetings. To hire the school cost three shillings, or if it was to include tea or coffee for supper the charge was five shillings. Among the functions held in Glenroy school were baby carnivals, sewing bees, concerts and plays put on by the Glenroy Amateur Dramatic Society and the Coalgate Amateur Theatrical Society (Pioneers' Progress, 1989. p.42).

When peace was declared in the South African War, many small centres declared a public holiday and held a gathering at their school. This included speeches, a lavish afternoon tea and a dance being held in the evening (McGeorge, 1985. p.155). Some schools also held patriotic fund concerts and farewell socials for soldiers leaving for World War One. While these celebrations were supported by nearly everyone this was not always the case. There was some consternation over the holding of dances and concerts in the school room as this involved the movement of furniture and equipment and sometimes the room was left in a mess. There was even the rumour that the Education Board had graduated floors put in some schools to prevent the holding of dances, however this prevented the committees raising money for their prize funds (McGeorge, 1985. p.156).

The openings of many schools were also occasions for major celebrations. The West Eyreton school was opened on the 9th of September 1872 and was greeted by parents and pupils from the East Eyreton and Cust schools with a mile long march "carrying banners, flying flags and bunting and singing hymns all the way" (Hawkins, 1957. p.359). Another large get together was the local school picnic, one of the highlights of the year. One of the biggest was held in 1897 when 2,000 people travelled by special train from Ashburton to descend on Lyttelton. This was a real local affair as most of the shops and businesses in Ashburton were closed for the day (McGeorge, 1985. p.155). The picnic was also the opportunity

for several schools to join forces, as was the case of the 1888 Dorie school picnic when the Kyle and Awaroa schools joined in (Dorie School, 1988. n.p.).

At many of the rural schools the local sporting clubs often held committee meetings in the school room and their events on the playgrounds and fields. Most schools were sited on fairly large sections varying from one to ten acres and later some also featured large swimming pools. Little River and Annat were described in *The Cyclopedia of New Zealand : Volume Three - Canterbury Province* as having extensive grounds, while Domett and Swannanoa both had ten acres and a number of others had five acres. Some schools although having only one to three acres of their own land were like Sefton, which stood on two acres but had a fifteen acre recreation reserve available to use as a playground (Cyclopedia, 1903. p.523). Perhaps one of the loveliest sites was that occupied by the Port Robinson school which stood on an elevated position on the bluff overlooking the bay (Cyclopedia, 1903. p.569).

These large sites meant that here was a public area available for the use of the sporting organizations. Lauriston school was used by the cricket club, formed in 1922, and the tennis club whose first meeting was held on the 6th of November 1929. In the same year Barrhill also saw the foundation of its tennis club using the court at the school. Swimming clubs also grew up as pools were added to some schools, Kirwee had

a "large concrete swimming pool" (Cyclopedia, 1903. p.735) and by 1902 so did Fernside. The Fernside pool was once again concrete and measured 75 feet by 3 feet and costing £90 varied between 3 feet and 9 feet in depth (Cyclopedia, 1902. p.480).

Once a school closed a settlement was deemed by many locals to have lost much of its heart. Gone were the opportunities for parents to be involved in the educational process and the chances to meet other parents in the area. In an attempt to keep up those contacts, some of the school buildings were purchased by the people or donated to them by either individuals or the Education Board. Some of these schools are still in use around Canterbury as community centres while other have been demolished or are used as farm buildings. Over recent years some have been renovated and are seeing a new lease of life as homes or craft centres.

CONCLUSION

Sinclair says of the rural school

> "Its services are for humanity and the future, and in some cases it is, in all cases it should be, figuratively if not geographically, the centre of the district"
>
> (Sinclair, 1927. p.11)

In nearly every North Canterbury community the school was most definitely the "centre of the district". A factor which was recognised in the 1877 Education Act by the granting of powers to the School Committees which allowed for the after

hours use of the school. This use of the schools ensured that on the one hand the committees had an opportunity to supplement their incomes and on the other hand that the community made use of the building in which many had a financial or time investment.

As a focus for the district's activities, also often the physical centre, the school acted as neutral ground for meetings and entertainments. Most were either built on the main roads or acted as the catalyst for the building of a new road and so for the majority access was not a major problem, both before and after the introduction of the motor vehicle. In many areas once the school and the church were well established the thoughts of the residents turned to the building of township halls. Although it is difficult to locate proof, with the introduction of the consolidation of small rural schools one suspects that the desire for a hall was encouraged by the possible loss of the school building. Once some of the Canterbury schools were closed the buildings were moved to other centres where there had been perhaps a fire, an earthquake, where there was a substandard or in one or two instances a large school was moved to replace a smaller one. What is obvious is that many people feared that the loss of the school would see the decline and eventual death of many of the community's clubs, associations and societies and in some cases they were proved right. They remembered the days when, except during harvest periods, they would

> "harness their horses and traps and gigs and meet in the school as a Literary and Debating Society. Plays and farces were acted, discussions, often heated, were held, lecturers from Christchurch were invited to address the group and a strong library was built up by local effort"
> (Sinclair, 1927. p.15)

Except in a few isolated cases the school was demanded by the community, well used and regarded by everyone and seen as a symbol of the coming of age of the district. They were proud to be able to talk about how good their school was and to be nominated for service on the school committee was seen as being a pinnacle of one's status in the community. However to be involved in the work of a large school and to be honoured by the voters in a wider area carried greater prestige and it was the arrival of the motor vehicle which allowed this to happen.

CHAPTER SIX

TRANSPORT AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

> "Mobility of the population over long distances is one of the characteristics that mark the modern societies of today. This mobility has been made possible by the continual development of improved methods of transport..." (Gin, 1973. p.1)

Once an initial social system is established in a new geographic settlement area, trade and communication among the various small communities and neighbouring areas is essential. Part of this is to enable the exchange of the goods, resources and knowledge needed by any group of humans. To facilitate this exchange it is necessary for individuals and groups to travel between the two or more areas and this movement involves some form of transport.

For the first Canterbury settlers that transport was via horseback, in various types of carriages pulled by either horses or bullocks or on foot. The ability to move around the region led to the wide spatial spread of the population around the Canterbury Plains.

Following from the chapter on the historical background to the establishment of the province and its education system, this chapter will examine the growth of the North Canterbury transport system as it affected the rural communities and in consequence the schools.

Following a short introduction, a general background of the development of transport will be given. The second section will consider the progress of transport systems in Canterbury, some of their effects on rural communities and how the education system and the school pupils made use of them. Little attention has been paid to this area of historical geography in connection to education and only one publication, written in 1977 by Jon Addison, has been located which exclusively deals with the school bus service which was pivotal in the school consolidation scheme.

INTRODUCTION

The drafters of the 1877 Education Act realised that as a relatively new country New Zealand's transport system was still in the early stages of development. As a consequence they wrote into the 1877 Act, as part of the exemption clause, that any child living more than two miles from a school or a railway line did not have to attend school. This was, in part, a recognition that during bad weather many of the rural roads were impassable and dangerous for young children to travel. Even those who used horses to get to school had problems with muddy fields and, especially in Canterbury, the swampy nature of the terrain.

Transport had an affect not only on the growth or decline of a community but also the opening and closing of its school, especially with the arrival of the motor vehicle in

approximately 1898.[1] As vehicles became cheaper and more available, travelling over relatively long distances proved to be faster and more comfortable for the transporting of children and this caused the smaller schools to be closed in favour of forming large ones in a central location. These school closures or consolidations gained momentum with the establishment, in 1924, of the Education Department financed school bus services (Addison, 1977. p5) and the belief that the bigger the school the better would be the educational outcomes.

The effect of transport on the opening of schools stems initially from the routes taken by the major roads and railways. Towns and communities were often dependent on the nodes of those routes being nearby for their livelihood, and while many towns expanded and developed, many also retrenched and almost died when they found themselves bypassed by road and rail. As the trade through the nodes grew so did the businesses and personnel to service the transport stocks and their offshoots. This meant that as the population of the settlement expanded the need for a school to act as an educational establishment for the children and also as a social centre for the surrounding area became imperative.

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[1]In their book, *The Veteran Years of Motoring,* P. MacLean and B. Joyce say the first car was owned by Mr. William McLean, a Wellington businessman, in 1898. This is borne out by a private members bill introduced in July 1898 by John Hutcheson M.P. to allow motor cars to be separated from traction engines and therefore be used on public roads.

BACKGROUND

In most people's mind transport is the movement of goods, people or animals from one place to another. To a transport geographer, however, transport can also include the movement of information from either one place to another or from one person to another as between a teacher and his or her pupils. For this thesis and in particular this chapter the transport referred to will be that of transporting pupils to and from school.

Transport has always had a major influence on the location and prosperity of settlements. From the time humans first began to trade, the availability of good transport facilities has been important. In many areas it was, and still is, the river, lake or sea that was used to transport goods. In other cases it was the existence of a major roadway or natural route to the next village or market which saw the growth of that settlement and others nearby. These factors have been ascribed a major role in the process of development and part was, as Adam Smith described, the potential of cost cutting transport innovations which led to widening markets (Pawson, 1979. p.1). This expansion of trade and transport routes was, in part, brought about by the new technology of the 19th and early 20th centuries and perhaps the most spectacular was the use of the 'iron horse' or railway. In the 'new' countries of, Canada, the United States, Australia and New Zealand, the arrival of the railway saw the birth, expansion or death of many trade and social settlements.

The building of the rail systems, especially in the United States, led to mobility and aided in the push towards new settlement frontiers. It reduced the need for many of the overnight stops required for the old stage coaches and also for the many backup services, e.g. farriers, wheelwrights, accommodation providers and those providing and caring for the horses. Many of these people therefore moved on, often to the north or south of the rail routes and led to the opening of new areas. For the majority of cases the railways drew people towards their nodes and terminals and caused towns to grow to cities and villages to towns or saw the foundation of new communities on the rail route.

The next major transport innovation was the motor vehicle. Prior to the turn of the 20th century the 'horseless carriage' was a novelty which many believed would not last long, however it began to gain popularity both in the town and the country as its speed, comfort and convenience improved. The motor car allowed the driver and passengers to travel along any suitable surface at their convenience and not according to a rigidly set route or timetable. This quickly saw people travelling to the larger centres and the decline of the smaller areas, a situation which is shown in the schematic.

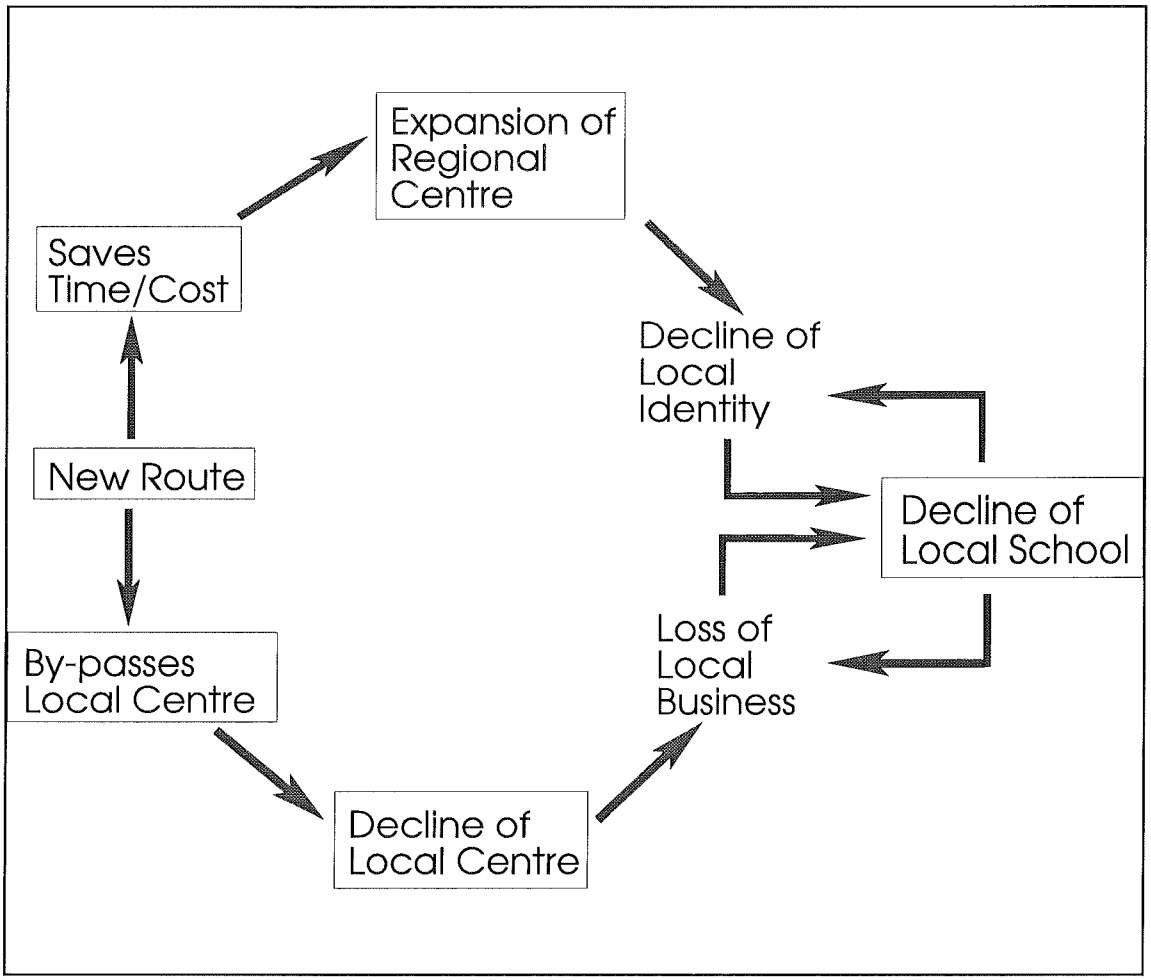

FIGURE 6-1 The outcomes of transport changes on the rural school

SOURCE : D.C. Johnston Honours level lectures

Figure 6-1 shows a representation of some of the outcomes of a change in transport and of its effects on the local rural school. The opening of a new route, the improvement of an existing route or the arrival of new transport technology, had two principal and direct outcomes. Firstly it saved travel time and costs to the regional centre, it also made that centre more accessible. Secondly, in the case of a new route, it often by-passed smaller centres and caused businesses to loose much of their carriage trade. In

combination the easier access, plus the saving of time and costs saw many rural families able to travel to the larger regional centres for business, shopping and pleasure activities.

In the United States in particular where a crossroads or a railhead was located, if there was not already a settlement around the site, it was not long before a group of businesses had grown up. In the horse and carriage days those establishments were the blacksmith, the inn, the carriage repairers, the butchers, a baker's and perhaps a general store. With the arrival of the railways it was the rail maintenance staff, the stationmaster, the postmaster and again the general store (Alley, 1931. p.15). In both cases these people needed housing and so builders, carpenters and decorators arrived; they all needed medical facilities, the doctor arrived, and in rural areas so did the veterinary surgeon; they needed spiritual guidance and of course their children needed teaching and so the school teacher and his[2] family arrived and a town quickly grew. Many of the towns which were to become the hub centres often existed prior to the new transport developments, these towns expanded as more trade from the hinterland was routed, for export, through them towards the river or sea ports. However for many, non-land locked, centres their success depended on three factors

[2]In most situations married women were not accepted as teachers except where they acted as sewing mistresses in a school headed by their husbands.

1) The size and productivity of the hinterland

2) The availability of a viable port

3) The ease of transport to the port

This in turn led to a feedback situation.

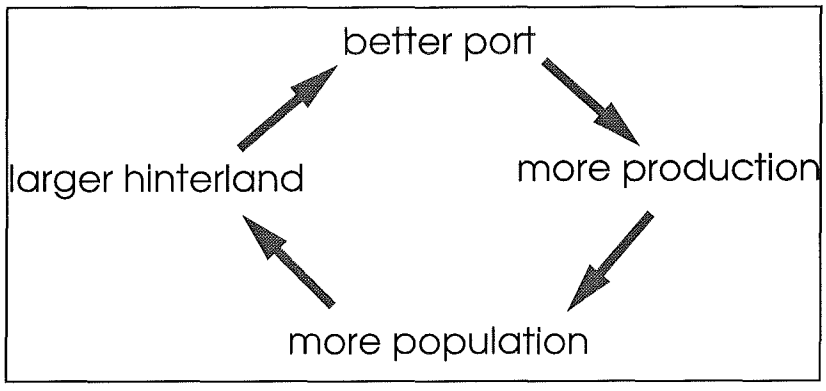

FIGURE 6-2 The Backward Links of Sea and River Ports

SOURCE : D.C. Johnston Honours level lectures

One backward link from this was the need for more rural labouring staff and therefore the additional service industries. There were unfortunately some problems for the intervening ports which were often in the rural areas and depended on the trans-shipping of rural products for their livelihoods. Rimmer, 1973, set out a model, based on the traditional mercantile model, for the development of New Zealand ports which can also be adapted to fit the development of many of the rural centres. He said that the phases of port development showed patterns of spatial gains and losses, with the areas near to the ports having an advantage, while those furthest away being greatly

disadvantaged (Rimmer, 1973. p.43). This was true, however as transport developed there were seen some of the effects of the phenomenon of time and space convergence. As the various forms of transport became faster and cheaper the goods were able to travel further for the same costs and in the same time and in fact they often reached the main export port quicker and at a very much lower cost then when an intermediate port was used. This situation saw the smaller ports by-passed and consequently they fell into disuse with the loss of work for both the direct port employees and the service industries's workers, which meant that the backward links were also lost to the area.

A similar situation can be advanced for other transport linked situations. With the arrival of the motor vehicle many rural residents were able to travel to regional centres and use the facilities and services which were offered in greater numbers and with wider choices. This too meant that as the relative distances fell the limited facilities, services and varieties of goods available in the small centres were by-passed and through disuse and loss of profits slowly closed. This too saw a decline in the population and was reflected on the numbers on the school rolls and the economic viability of keeping open small schools as opposed to providing either special transport or paying transport allowances to the larger centres.

CANTERBURY

When the first settlers arrived in Canterbury there were only two ways of traversing the Port Hills between the Port of Lyttelton and the proposed new settlement of Christchurch. One method was by small boats around the heads, via the Sumner bar where many mishaps occurred, into Ferrymead and then up the river to the Bricks Wharf (Christchurch Transport Board, no.1. p.4). The second method was by foot along the Bridle Path over the hills and through the swampy land to what is now classed as the central business district around Cathedral Square.

Once the settlers had crossed the hills, the flatness of the landscape made movement around the plains relatively easy and saw little to prevent settlement spread, although crossing the Canterbury braided rivers did prove a dangerous obstacle. It also meant that the later building of roads and railways was not only easier but also cheaper than in many other areas of New Zealand who had, what Richard Hartshorne described as major kinetic[3] and static barriers[4] (Mayer and Ullman, 1954. p.328). Apart from the physical features of the plains other factors also combined to enable the rapid growth of transport in the Province. These factors were, as Watters states, the area's "early political and economic importance" and "the absence of racial conflict" (p.135), the latter being a major hinderance to transport development in many North Island

[3] Mountains and similar physical barriers.

[4] Areas with sparse population, e.g. bush or desert.

provinces. With Canterbury providing much of the food for the fledgling dominion it is therefore no surprise that, with the initial rail spike being driven in in 1860, the Christchurch to Ferrymead railway was the first to be built in New Zealand. There was also a great willingness of business people and politicians to invest in the railways and roads as the socio-economic returns would outstrip the initial costs. A railway line in a remote area would encourage the further investment and growth needed to attract new settlers and the costs of handling large volumes of goods would be reduced and with less handling there would be less damage to the item and so a higher price could be obtained at the final market. Time also paid an important role as in the pre-motor vehicle period, the railways were quicker and in most cases used a more direct route to either the market or export port than trans-shipping through subsidiary ports.

The railways and roads in the Canterbury region played an important role in the development of the province and likewise in the lives of many of the rural schools. In some cases schools were built on the main road of the area and were therefore very accessible to the children in the main settlement, but for others living on the many scattered farms access could depend on the network of feeder roads and their condition throughout the year. There are many examples of school inspectors reports where it has been noted that children were absent for examination day because the roads around the school were virtually closed due to wet and muddy

conditions. The railways also affected some of the rural schools although in several cases this was due to routing expectations rather than realities.

Several settlements grew up in anticipation of the future route the railway was going to take, but the reality was that either the proposed line did not eventuate or that it took an alternative route. In other cases, such as that of Saltwater Creek, the arrival of the railway saw the death of a thriving town. Saltwater Creek had a sea access wharf which was used by a large farming catchment area to ship produce through to or from Lyttelton. Prior to the railway the town could boast hotels, blacksmiths, general stores, fifty private dwellings and a good fairly large school. When in about 1880 the railway took the sea traffic and Sefton, which was on the rail line, became the main township of the surrounding rural area (Topp, 1947. p.86), Saltwater Creek slowly died. This is seen in the falling school rolls[5], in 1876 the average daily attendance was 65 and had dropped to 31 in 1883 and by another 10 at the turn of the century. Meanwhile the Sefton school which opened in 1884 with a first year average of 68, had risen to 75 in 1897 and its numbers remained at 65 plus into the 1920s (AJHR E.-1, dates as shown)

RAILWAYS

The 1870s were a major time of expansion in all directions

[5] A full set of tables showing the average school attendances for the period 1850-1940 is included in the appendix.

for the Canterbury region. Christchurch was well established as the core for all types of services, for entertainment and as the centre for agricultural and pastoral shows which were, and still are, a well established opportunity for town and country to meet. Travel from some of the outlying areas was still fairly tedious and difficult and often required the family to be on the road and away from their home and land for a week or more. In the burgeoning new centres however there was not long to wait for the arrival of the railway. The first rail spike to be driven in New Zealand was on the Ferrymead line in 1860 and from this point the development of the Canterbury rail system took off at what could be described as an almost alarming rate.

The flat landscape of the plains aided in the explosion of rail lines, although what was possibly the most difficult stretch was one of the first to be completed. Just seven years after that first spike was driven a train passed through the Lyttelton tunnel and began the decline of most of the small coastal ports.

In the 1860s there was much discussion regarding the routing of the first major line. Reports were called for and by 1865 it was clear that the Province could not afford to build both to the north and the south and so despite criticism the southern route was chosen. The route described in the report was decided on as it passed through the rich agricultural areas to the south, across the Race River and over the

Rangitata River. While this line was seen by many as important for the farming communities, *The Press* had said that

> "The line to Race fell mid-way between the rich agricultural land of Ellesmere and the coal measures of Malvern and did nothing to assist in the transport of either commodity"

the paper was proved wrong however, as the line, shown in figure 6-3, was very well utilised with the Ellesmere people using the Burnham halt and Selwyn station handling Malvern coal. (Christchurch Transport Board, no.5. p.27).

The main stations on this line were at already established centres, however in the true rural areas the stations were spaced at 2 to 3 miles along the length of the track. They all had stock yards for the loading of animals and small passenger platforms.

Alongside the development of this main line there were also several branch lines around the region, which were completed between 1875 and 1886. Including one in to Little River which was needed for the transport of a large timber stand, one of the few left in Canterbury[6]. This line ran from Lincoln to Little River with intervening stops at Birdlings Flat, Kaituna, Motukarara and Greenpark. To the west a two and a half mile railway was laid through to Whitecliffs, another

[6] Another significant timber stand was in the Oxford area serviced by the lines through Rangiora and Bennetts.

from Rolleston to Darfield[7] and on to Sheffield[8], with a second line from Darfield to Whitecliffs, opening in 1874 and 1875. In 1887 a privately owned organisation, the Midland Railway Company, began building a line from Springfield to Greymouth. Acting as the junction point for both the Sheffield and Whitecliffs line Darfield grew quickly and "served the needs of an extensive farming community" (Christchurch Transport Board, 1988. p.41). Springfield was always a railway town, and its position at the junction of the foothills and the plains saw it as an ideal stop for refreshments for the passengers and for engines to top up with water and coal. In addition two privately built southern lines were from Race to Methven, opened February 1880, and from Tinwald to Springburn, opened between 1886 and 1889.

While these lines were extending south, west and east work was also proceeding on the 'great northern railway'. The 1864 Commission, as well as looking at the southern route, was also discussing that of the northern railway. The opening of this line was progressive with the first section from Christchurch to Kaiapoi on April 29, 1872, and the balance as shown in table 6-1

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[7]Originally called Whitecliffs Junction it was renamed Horndon Junction in 1876 and later Darfield.

[8]Previously known as Malvern.

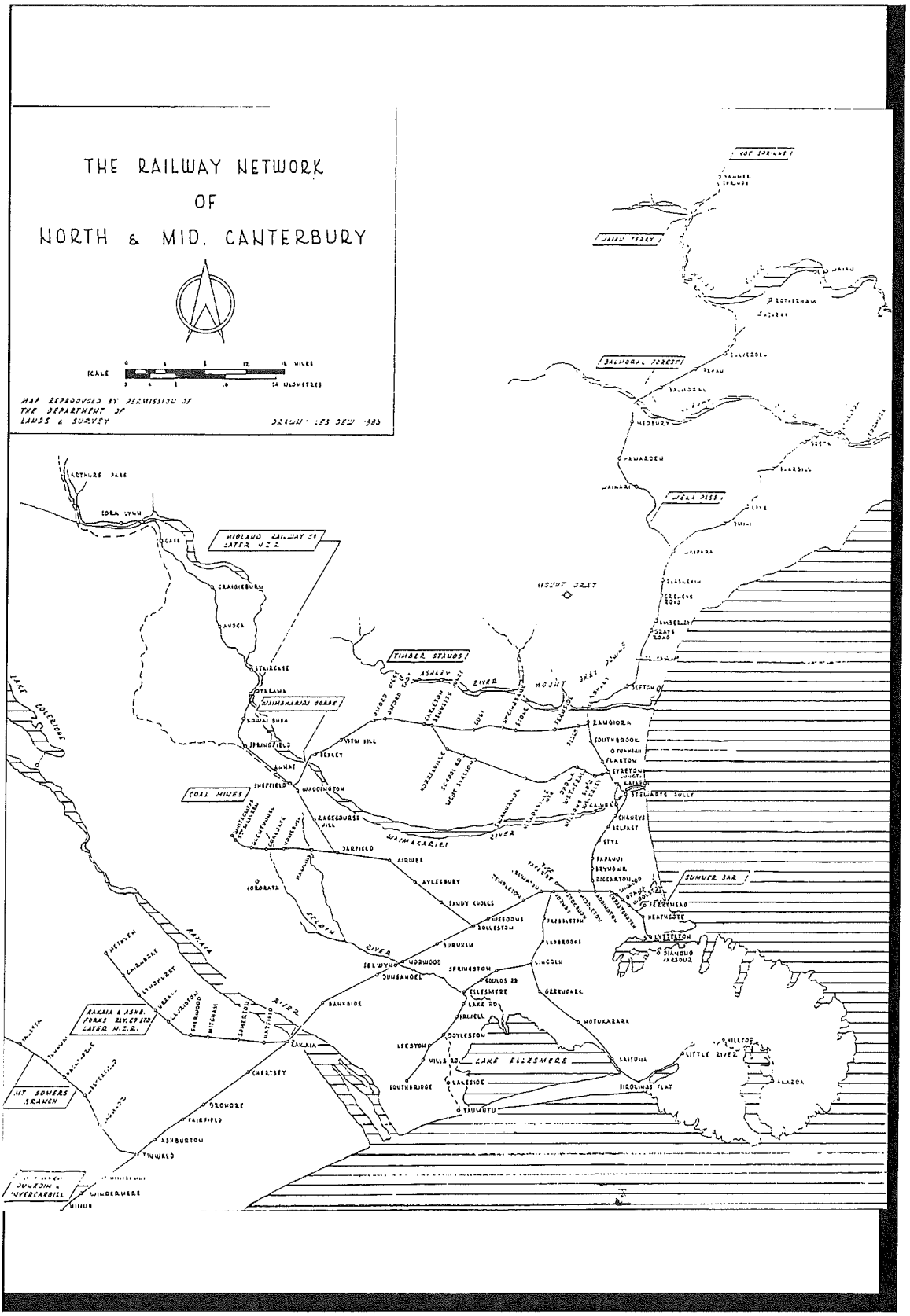

FIGURE 6-3 : The railways of North Canterbury
SOURCE : Christchurch Transport Board, 1988.

TABLE 6-1 : OPENING OF NORTHERN RAIL LINES

LINE	OPENING DATE
Rangiora	November 5, 1872
Amberley	February, 1876
Waipara	October 6, 1880
Waikari	April 6, 1882
Medbury	September 15, 1884
Culverden	February 8, 1886
Parnassus	September 2, 1912
Waiau	December 15, 1919

Here again there were several branch lines, i.e. the line from Eyreton Junction to Bennetts, opening 1878, and from Rangiora through to Sheffield, opening in sections from 1874 to 1884.

All these rail routes were well patronised by both passengers and for freight. The Rangiora line into Christchurch was, in part, for a commuter service with trains being timed to suit workers and school pupils travelling into the city. Initially, many of the school pupils using the rail services were those attending secondary schools or private schools in the city. For some however the railway line was much closer than the school and they used the train on a daily basis to get to school as opposed to living away from home.

In some of the more remote areas that the train passed through the numbers of school aged children were too low to warrant the cost of establishing a school. The roads in the area were often only fair weather tracks and yet the parents

still wanted their children to receive a good education. The Government therefore introduced a travel subsidy scheme in 1895 which saw those school children

> "out of reach of a primary school, but living near to a convenient line of railway" being "granted free passes to the nearest public school or private school"
> AJHR 1915, E-1. p.14

From here the pass system was extended to holders of scholarships to and free places in secondary, district and technical high schools, and in 1909 to other secondary schools.[9] While the system of free passes was excellent, and in many cases a necessity for secondary pupils, rail travel was difficult for some. The children from Waikari had to make a daily journey of 50 miles, or three hours, one way to Christchurch, which meant leaving home at 6.30am arriving back at 7.45pm (Sinclair, 1927. p.49). It also meant that they arrived at school early and left very late and therefore required some form of supervision, which entailed additional costs for the school.

In most areas where the railway existed new settlements grew and therefore a school was established but one exception was that of Coalgate. Many of the residents did not like their children having to travel too far away and a heated debate

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[9]These passes were not available to private school pupils and this to Sir Harry Atkinson, during a debate on this matter, saying "We ought not to attempt to clip all our trees into the same shape... Our education is not too costly; rather the other way around if we are to hold our own against other nations" (Ash, 1962. p.94)

was held on April 6, 1885 with regard to the establishment of a side school to that of Glentunnel. Part of the problem was the rivalry between South Malvern (later Glentunnel) and Coalgate after a main school site was fixed at Surveyor's Gully despite the objections of those at Coalgate. At the 1885 meeting the prospect of a side school was rejected as the train timetable was seen as fitting in with the school hours at Glentunnel (Wilson, 1949. pp.85-87), Coalgate did finally get its school in 1893.

The railway had brought overall wealth to Canterbury and the opportunity for some previously fairly isolated children to enjoy the education and companionship of school life.

Roads and the Motor Vehicle

Although the railways had an effect on various communities in Canterbury, the largest influences came from a combination of the roading network and, from the 1920s, the motor car and larger passenger vehicles.

J. S. Duncan says that the motor car saw the doom of many small towns and with the new mobility of the farmer and his family, centres like Rangiora, Leeston and Kaikoura expanded at the expense of many small centres (p.79). After 1911 Rangiora, which was strategically sited with respect to roads and bridges, grew steadily. While in Ellesmere county Leeston grew to the detriment of both Southbridge and Doyleston. With its "superior nodality" Leeston attracted specialist

facilities e.g. a hospital, newspaper, saleyard, the County Council and electric power board offices (Duncan, 1947. p.80). As shown in figure 6-1 this meant that many rural families would travel to these centres to carry out business and often while the husbands were at the saleyards the women and children would visit the larger stores to shop. This was damaging to their local settlement shops who could not offer either the variety of goods or the prices of the large turnover establishments.

Getting to school has always been a problem for the rural child and this was no different for those on the Canterbury Plains. Prior to the arrival of the motor vehicle and its availability to everyone transport for the farm labourer's children was usually by foot or if they were lucky by horse or pony while for the landowner's children it was often by horse or carriage.

The early forms of transport on the rural plains were by foot, by horse back or horse or bullock carriage or dray. It was not unusual to visit a rural school and see a small paddock nearby full of horses and ponies. Many also either had a shed in the play ground or an internal room set aside for the saddles and tack for the animals. The first horses arrived in 1839 and their numbers grew quickly from 50 at the end of 1851 to 1,189 in 1855 to 6049 by 1861 and in 1918 stood at 66,585 (Christchurch Transport Board, no.1. p.7). Horses began to lose their hold on the general transport

market shortly after the turn of the century with the arrival of the first motor vehicles, however, for many rural children the horse remained the number one method of getting to school right into the 1950's. The first roads in the province were begun on Banks Peninsula by the crews of French warships stationed at Akaroa (Christchurch Transport Board, no.1. p.4). Many of these early roads were only flattened tracks, very hot and dusty in the summer north westerly winds and often muddy swamps after a winter storm. It was some years before the country roads were metalled and made suitable for all weathers and types of conveyance.

Many of the smaller rural schools were already having problems keeping both teachers and pupils and the introduction of an official school bus service, on the 1st of April 1924, acted as the catalyst to the closure of many of those schools in a consolidation scheme which continued into the 1970s (see chapter four for more details). The bus service begun in the King Country when three Model T Fords were used to transport 90 children living around Piopoi. A description of that first journey is given in A History of School Buses by Jon Addison

> "With its canvas sides flapping in the breeze and its transverse leaf-spring suspension magnifying every bump in the road, the Model T managed to average just 25 kilometres per hour on the way to Piopoi"
>
> Addison, 1977. p.5

While on that first day there were only three buses, by 1974 the Education Department and various private contractors owned almost 2,000 school buses and carried 100,000 children daily over the whole country. These original buses cost the Education Department £226, plus the cost of running them, the mechanic's and driver's wages and later replacement buses. These costs led someone to remark that the Department was pumping money into the buses and the only real result was the black smoke from the exhaust pipe of the Fords.

The idea of transporting children to school was not new as it was underway in the United States as early as 1869. In a report made to the New Zealand House of Representatives in 1908, the minister who had visited Canada and the United States in answer to a question on the conveying of school pupils pointed out that the United States system was operating successfully by ensuring that

> "The roads should be fairly good, and the distances not too great - not exceeding, in general, five or six miles - or else the cost of conveyance becomes too great to be outweighed in the minds of the ratepayers by the advantages. In the United States the expense is often reduced by arranging for the same driver to carry the mails".
>
> AJHR, 1908. E-1. p.64

In Canada however the roads were often not good enough and although it was tried in the Guelph area it proved unpopular and the minister told the house that "the majority of

townships from which the children came have voted against the continuance of the system". (AJHR, 1908. E-15. p.64)

One of the concerns of some parents was that travelling would affect their children's health, however in the United States it was discovered that the reverse applied. The children who were transported in covered vans were "less exposed to bad weather" and also it was said that their "attendance is naturally much more regular" (AJHR, 1908. E-15. p.64).

As already mentioned some of the costs were offset by using the school vans to also carry mails and in addition there was a saving on the cost of small schools, both on the actual building and the salaries of teachers and maintenance staff. The final paragraph of the section on the consolidation of schools and the conveyance of children says

> "There are no doubt many localities in New Zealand where the plan of conveying children could be adopted with great advantage. I should on all grounds advise its adoption where roads were good, the distances not too great, and where children would attend a school with two or three teachers instead of a small one teacher school."
>
> AJHR, 1908. E-1. p.64

With the arrival of the larger passenger vehicles and as a consequence of the upgrading of major road routes the school bus service and school consolidations were able to begin.

Despite the importance of the school bus service little has

been written on it in either the annual Education Reports or in historical literature. With regard to its use in Canterbury the Inspectors report for 1924 says that the "conveying of pupils from outlying districts is extending rapidly", and that large scale operations are to be started at Mackenzie, Methven and Oxford. The 1925, 1927 and 1928 reports all give lists of the districts where the bus services were in operation.

1925	Lyndhurst	Mackenzie	Methven
	Oxford	Southbridge	
1927	Hawarden	Tinwald	Oxford
1928	Allenton	Culverden	Eiffelton
	Lauriston	Lowcliffe	Lyndhurst
	Lyttelton	Mackenzie	Methven
	Oxford	Rokeby	Tinwald
	Southbridge		

The 1932 Report gives a glowing recommendation of the existing services used to replace closed schools, and points out that if the economic situation was better it would be expanded. By 1933, however, parents started to ask questions with regard to the funding of services

> "Where local contributions are required the parents frequently ask why they should be expected to meet this charge, which their more fortunate neighbours escape".
>
> Canterbury Education Board Report 1933 p.5

This criticism was overcome by pointing out some of the advantages their children were receiving by attending a

larger centralised school. They were able to mix with more of their peers, teachers could specialise more, more subjects could be taught, more healthy and hygienic conditions could be maintained and there were better facilities and equipment available.

Apart from the costs already mentioned the buses also required garaging. These were usually built at one of the furthest points on the route. For example Ataahua was the site for the Tai Tapu bus, while garages were erected at Doyleston and Irwell for the buses used to take pupils to the Leeston consolidated school.

The availability of suitable transport was often an important factor in the final decision to consolidate one or more schools. One example was that of the 1936 proposed joining of Upper Selwyn school into the Dunsandel school. A condition placed on the merger was that transport would be provided and so W.F. Bishop began the service with a passenger load of 14 pupils and a daily run of 25 miles.

Some of the changes due to consolidations and the increasing use of transport can be seen in figure 6-4 which shows the spatial distribution of schools in 1926 and in 1940.

CONCLUSION

The movement of humans, animals and goods has always been an important facet of human life. With the discovery and later

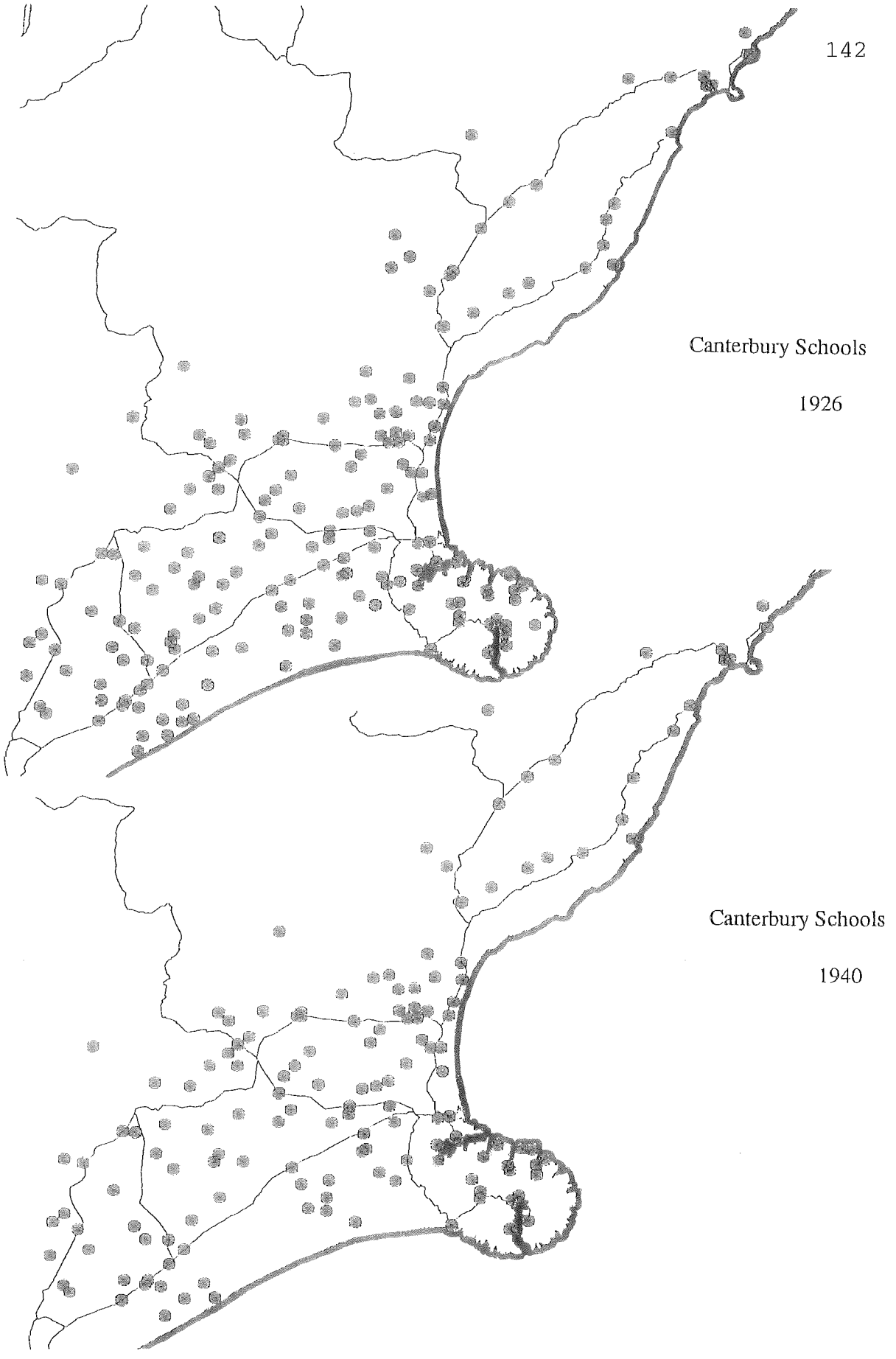

FIGURE 6-4 : Schools open in North Canterbury in 1926 and 1940

opening up of the new countries, transport became very important to the establishment of new frontiers. The arrival of the railway saw the rapid expansion of many small settlements along the routes, the encouragement to open new specialist agricultural regions and the full utilisation of much needed resources. With the comfort and speed of the railway more people were willing and able to travel from the small centres to the larger ones which led to the demise of many of those smaller periphery centres unable to compete with their larger cousins.

With the turn of the century and the introduction of the motor vehicle movement became even easier and more diverse as the restrictions of the rail tracks had disappeared. This diversity led to considerations being undertaken with regard to the better use of public property which included the schools.

Transport was the largest non-legislative factor on the distribution of schools in the North Canterbury region. Its effects saw the closing of many small schools and the opening of many large schools most of which still exist.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THESIS CONCLUSION

Education has always been an important part of human life and from the moment a new baby is born, and many believe prior to birth, it is learning. The initial learning process is concerned with building mind maps of the surrounding areas and the building of what can be described as a mental photo album of the family and friends. As the child grows it needs to learn the formal skills required for living in a growing complex world. These skills include reading, writing, arithmetic and the social science subjects and in most cases they are learnt in the formal setting of the school with fellow pupils, a teacher and with the use of learning aids. It is the spatial distribution of the formal settings that this thesis has studied.

The state has been a major influence in the spread of schools throughout the region and this was reflected in the first three thesis objectives. Numbers one, the nature of state involvement in rural education, and two, to identify the reasons for state involvement, were covered in a general way in chapter two on the theory of education. It described the belief that education would help to keep people busy, to instil the codes of moral and social behaviour and therefore in reducing crime rates and also reduce the rising birthrate rate.

Objective number three was to try and identify the types and methods of state involvement and this is heavily tied up with part of objective five, i.e. political factors, social pressures, regulations, statutes and by-laws. Initially the state offered encouragement and in some cases land and money to aid in the establishment of a rural school and in part the rest was left to the local community. However it was not long before great inequalities were evident in New Zealand and government intervention on a national scale was required. The rural vote and its power was to be ignored at the politicians peril and so in each general regulation passed, from the 1877 Act on, the interests of the rural child were well represented.

The spatial distribution of rural schools, objective four, is again closely tied in with the subsets of number five, especially those regarding population changes and transport developments. During the 1980s many of the younger middle and higher income earners began to move out of the cities for a taste of the rural life, this was mainly due to the modern automobile and in some areas the rail commuter systems. In the study period, 1850-1940, both of these factors played important roles. The railways quickly spread over the flat Canterbury plains and the more isolated children were able to reach school by train. For others the horse played a major role until the arrival of the motor vehicle and the beginning of the school bus service in 1924. This in turn lead to the consolidation of many smaller schools in favour of the

'bigger is better' and 'economies of scale' philosophies of the administrators and economists.

Perhaps one of the most interesting questions was thesis objective number six - What effect the placement of the school had on the community? Some say the school led to the formation of the community and in many ways this is true. It required a meeting of householders to vote in a school committee to begin the process and also their co-operation and their inputs, which included financial, time and labour, this then gave the families a common goal and brought them together.

Once the school was in operation it quickly became the social, entertainment, sporting, cultural and learning focus of that community. The school brought additional incomes and therefore services into the area. It also gave many of those within its sphere of influence a sense of security and permanence and its loss was thought of as bringing the doom of the community. In some cases it did herald the beginning of the end, especially when viewed in conjunction with the growth of the transport structure, but in others the people continued to utilise the old school buildings and maintain their sense of community.

The initial aims of this work were to identify some of the factors which gave rise to the spatial patterns of state elementary schools evident in the North Canterbury region

between 1850 and 1940. During this period the first schools were established by the Canterbury Association, school attendance was slowly made compulsory, the school bus service was commenced and many small schools disappeared as population changes took place and school consolidations increased.

The reasons for these changes varied from district to district, however there were a number of factors which can be identified as acting as threads through the education system. These range from, in the early period, a lack of money and teachers through to the development of transport technology and the speed and cost effectiveness of busing pupils to a large central school. The legislators also had a major influence on the appearance of the educational maps of the region. They slowly changed the administration of the school system by introducing more centralization, based on the Education Department, by changing the age range of pupils and by supporting the new transport technologies.

The most important legislation passed by central government has long been regarded as the 1877 Education Act which established the foundations of a national system for New Zealand. Previously education was the responsibility of the individual provinces and this saw excellent facilities and systems in the rich southern provinces of Nelson, Canterbury and Otago, but almost non-existent ones in the north.

Canterbury had been fortunate in having far-sighted founders who, through having good educational backgrounds themselves, encouraged the settlers to establish schools. Sometimes the enthusiasm outstripped the monetary resources and the final outcomes fell short of the dream with parents unwilling to make the sacrifice of the loss of their children's labour. However many communities did build schools, gave them continuing support and also came to regard them as the "heart of the village". The school became a landmark, the social and recreational centre and initially for many areas their church, library, post-office and museum.

When school consolidations began in the 1920s many residents fought to keep their schools with as much determination as they had showed in having them opened with some introducing local taxes to raise money to keep the teacher and the school. They wanted the children nearby and wanted to retain the pupil's loyalty to their own community, the social and sports clubs. They relented later however when the advantages of consolidation were pointed out and eventually the closings went ahead with the backing of the parents.

During World War I, New Zealand provided a high proportion of its human resources to fight in Europe and this saw many teachers joining the armed forces. The loss of these men and women saw some small schools close and with the economic costs many of the demands for new schools for new schools were put on hold for the duration. Once the War was over and

things settled, the number of primary schools climbed to reach an all time high in 1926. School consolidations had already begun and their pace increased from this point with the use of the railway or busing. While the most remote children joined the register of the Correspondence School which was established in 1922.

North Canterbury was very well endowed with rural primary schools during the period of this study and figure 7-1 shows this graphically. While well spaced in some areas the schools were heavily concentrated in others, most of those closely packed schools were also areas of the main towns. In the north there is one cluster around Kaikoura, centrally around Oxford, Rangiora, Kaiapoi and Belfast. On Banks Peninsula the Akaroa Bay area, see figure 7-2 has had the highest number of schools with, overtime, most of the largest bays having their own schools. To the south the major population area of Ashburton has been well endowed with schools.

RESEARCH PROBLEMS

When beginning any type of research it can be extremely difficult to identify any possible areas of problems. Initially the task of listing the schools and their placement on a map seemed to be a straight forward and easily obtained goal. The problems encountered mainly involved schools and areas which changed names. Two examples were those of Eiffelton which was renamed Grantham in March 1891 and then back to Eiffelton within 6 months. The other example is that

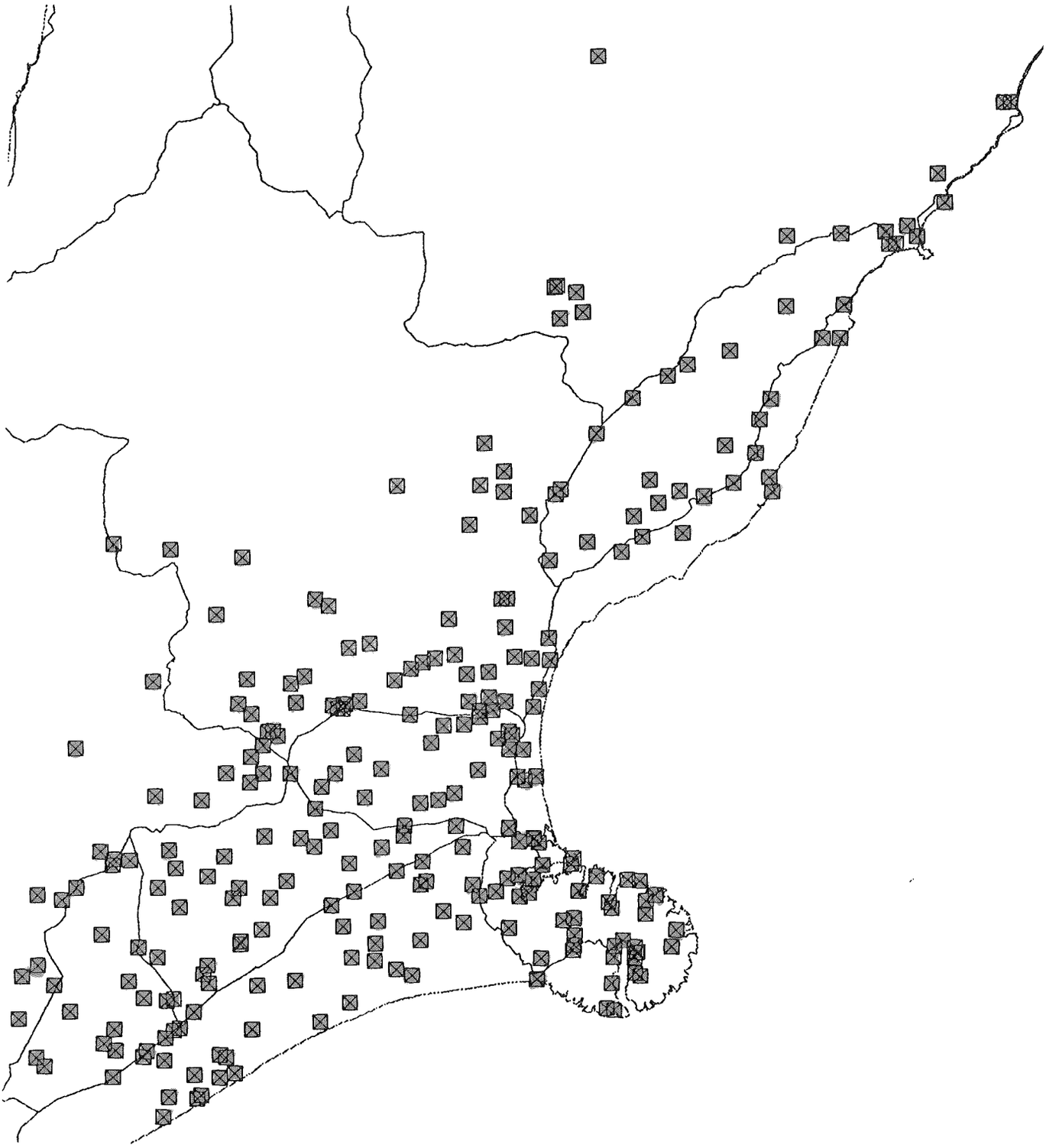

FIGURE 7-1 : The distribution of schools, 1850-1940

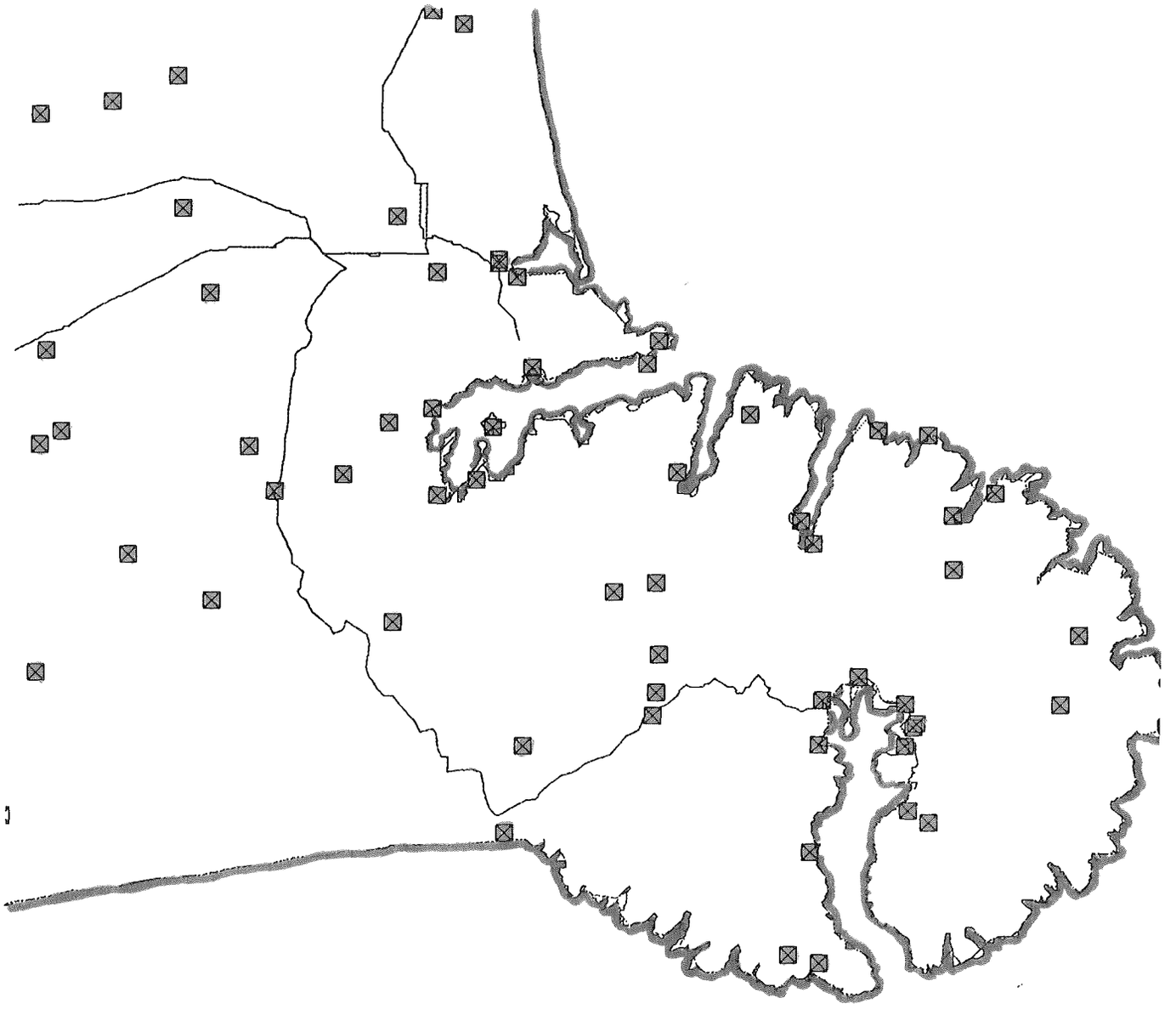

FIGURE 7-2 : Distribution of schools on Banks Peninsula, 1850-1940.

of Kaiapoi Island where there was the main school and the Kaiapoi Island North school. In 1889 the North school was renamed Clarkville, while in 1938 the island was renamed Coutts Island.

In some cases the Education reports gave no indication of the name changes and one school would appear in the listings for several years but suddenly disappear with another school making an unannounced appearance. Often the only way to make the connection between the two schools was by looking through the lists of teachers and pupil teachers. While a qualified teacher may have moved to a new location it was rare for a pupil teacher to transfer between schools.

With the average attendance records, the numbers can vary greatly from year to year, especially in the smaller schools. Many studies have used the register numbers as the basis for their work, however these can be very unreliable as the registers were often left unpurged for the total school year and some children appear on those of several schools. Likewise, in some cases, the average attendance figures can not be relied upon as they were used to determine the school funding. Which ever type of figure is used they can however highlight major changes in an area, this can be the opening or closing of a nearby school or local industry and here again this can initiate further study. There are a number of other traps here too. The sudden drop of pupils in a small school could be due to the movement of a single family as in

the past large rural families were common place.

FUTURE RESEARCH

From the base set up by this thesis a number of both geographic and educational pathways can be taken in future research. These can include studies on individual schools or on single or multiple communities where the school was both the educational and social centre.

Many schools in North Canterbury have had their histories written either on an individual basis or in a general history of an area, e.g. *Beyond the Waimakari* which has a 24 page chapter on education. In a similar way to this thesis, Hawkins' book covers a wide area and can only scratch the surface of the histories of the various schools.

Although the value of archives are now seen many are still being held in private hands or in unsuitable storage and need to be recorded, as do the memories of many old rural school pupils. If the time and funds were available future research should include the building up of an audio and photographic library, plus newspaper and official reports and documents. This is especially important for the smaller, long closed schools as these played as an important role in the development of the people and the region as the existing large schools. Too many valuable resources have been lost over the years, as is evident in such cases as that of Fyvie school, which closed in 1927, whose records were lost before

any copies or studies were made.

Another area of interest which this thesis has only been able to touch on is the effect the school had on the community. One study on the effects of school consolidation was carried out in Britain in 1961 by Terence Lee and attempted to "test the hypothesis that school reorganisation is the cause of rural depopulation". In Lee's study of the consolidation, or 'reorganisation' as it is called in Britain, of schools in Devon he found that there was some evidence that the policy was "depressing the rate of growth of rural parishes" (p.72). It would be interesting to carryout a similar survey in Canterbury, although a number of factors would have to be taken into account which would not be relevant in the Devon region.[1] One of those effects is in regard to the age of the settlements and the industries and populations based in each region.

The effects of the changes in population in the Canterbury area are in part due to the expansion and development of the agricultural, horticultural and pastoral land uses and later the growth of manufacturing industries. Large workforces were required to break the land in and to build the transport infrastructure, but once completed the changes in population were from the rural to the urban sector. When the growth of the urban areas and the depletion of the resources, e.g. the

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[1] My personal knowledge of both Devon and Canterbury enable me to make this statement

timber stands on Banks Peninsula and in the Oxford area, are combined the spatial patterns of the rural school quickly alters.

Any form of historical study can have its rewards and its frustrations but without looking back it can be very difficult to be able to look forward and not make many of the same mistakes. History is such that it can be compared to a jigsaw with many pieces needed to complete the full picture and it is hoped that this work may prove to be a small piece in the jigsaw of Canterbury geographic and educational history.

APPENDIX ONE

The Education Board of the
District of North Canterbury
Christchurch. N.Z.

16th October, 1901

To G. L. Twentyman Esq.
Mayfield.

Sir

I have the honour by direction of the Board to acknowledge the receipt of your petition of the 30th ult., also signed by a number of settlers living in the locality of the Hekeao Government settlement, praying for the erection of a new school; also forwarding a list of the number of children in the district. In reply I am directed to ask you to be so good as to let the Board know the number and names of the children now attending the Mayfield or any other school, and whose names are on the list sent in by you. On receipt of this information, which the Board is anxious to obtain as the Mayfield Committee have applied for additions to their school, the matter will be further considered.

I have the honour to be.
Sir.
Your obedient Servant.
W. C. Kane
Secretary.

APPENDIX TWO

STATUTES OF NEW ZEALAND RELATING TO ELEMENTARY EDUCATION 1877-1940
Affecting the National System Only

1877	Education Act
	Education Reserves Act
	Immigration and Public Works Appropriation Act
	Land Act
1881	Neglected and Criminal Children Acts Amendment Act
1882	Industrial Schools Act
	Land Act 1877 Amendment Act
1885	Land Act
1890	School Committees Election Act
1891	School Committees Election Act
1894	School Attendance Act
1895	Industrial Schools Amendment Act
	Manual and Technical Elementary Instruction Act
1900	Education Boards Election Act
1901	Education Boards Election Act
	School Attendance Act
	Public-School Teachers' Salaries Act
1902	Manual and Technical Instruction Act
1903	School Committees Election Act
1904	Education Act
	Education Amendment Act
1905	Education Act Amendment Act
1908	Education Act
	Education Amendment Act

	Industrial Schools Act
1910	Education Amendment Act
1912	Education Amendment Act
1913	Education Amendment Act
1914	Education Act
1919	Education Amendment Act
	Education Purposes Loans Act
1920	Education Amendment Act
1921-22	Education Amendment Act
1924	Education Amendment Act
1926	Education Amendment Act
1932-33	Education Amendment Act
1936	Education Amendment Act
1938	Education Amendment Act

APPENDIX THREE

FOUNDERS AND IMPORTANT MEN OF CANTERBURY

JAMES EDWARD FITZGERALD, 1818-1896

Born in Bath in 1818, he was the son of a landowner of Kilminchy, Queen's County, Ireland. James was educated at school in Bath and the in 1842 gained a B.A. in Christ's College, Cambridge.

He initially became a junior assistant in the Department of Antiquities at the British Museum, later rising to the position of assistant secretary of the Museum. During this time he became heavily involved in the Colonial Reform Society as its first secretary. Having married Frances (Fanny) Erskine Draper and travelled on the *Charlotte Jane* as secretary of the Canterbury Association. FitzGerald drafted the constitution of the Society of Canterbury Colonists and was appointed its emigration agent. On arrival in Lyttelton he was made sub-inspector of police and in 1851 worked as founding editor of the *Lyttelton Times* newspaper. In 1853 the family moved to Springs Station, west of Christchurch, as cattle and dairy farmers. Between 1853 and 1857 he was elected as the first superintendent of the new province and during his time the population increased from 3,000 to 6,230. It was during this time that Christ's College was named

probably after FitzGerald's alma mater.

In 1854 James became the member of the House of Representatives for Lyttelton in the first General Assembly and was the only provincial superintendent to attend that session. On doctors advice he returned to Britain in 1857 and spent the next three years despatching some 4,000 immigrants to the colony. After refusing the governorships of both British Columbia and Queensland, on health grounds, he returned to Springs Station in 1860.

From 1861-1863 he represented Akaroa on the Provincial Council and took over as sole proprietor of *The Press*, but had to relinquish control in 1868. Over a five period from 1862 to 1867 FitzGerald was the Member of the House of Representatives for both Ellesmere and Canterbury and served as Minister for Native Affairs, retiring from politics in 1867. After spending his last 30 years in Wellington he died in 1878.

WILLIAM ROLLESTON, 1831-1903

Born at Maltby Hall in Yorkshire in 1831, he was the son of the Reverend George Rolleston. Educated at Rossall school he received second class honours in Classical tripos from Emmanual College, Cambridge. In 1858 he arrived at Lyttelton on the *Regina* and became a cadet at Lake Coleridge, later buying a small sheep run. With his education he also taught

latin and greek to sixth form level at Christ's College.

After serving for nineteen months as a provincial secretary, leading what has been described as the strongest executive in Canterbury provincial history, and on the 1863 Education Commission he resigned in 1865 to take up a position as under secretary in the Native Department under Premier Frederick Weld. Resigning in 1868 he returned to Canterbury as superintendent and after defeating Moorehouse in 1870 was returned unopposed in 1874.

In 1881 he was the Native Minister while serving, from 1868-1884, as the representative for the Avon electorate, in 1884 he won the Geraldine seat and in 1890 that of Halswell. Eighteen ninety one saw a disorganised parliamentary opposition made him leader a position which he held until defeated in 1893. His political career was ended in 1899 by just one vote.

Rolleston's greatest achievements were in the field of education and it was under his guidance that C.C. Bowen made the Canterbury system "a convincing precedent for the 1877 Education Act" (NZ Bibliography, p.372). He was also instrumental in ensuring that Canterbury College (later Canterbury University) prevented Otago from dominating the New Zealand university system.

GEORGE FERGUSON BOWEN, 1821-1899

Born 1821 in Ireland to the rector of Taughboyne in County Donegal, he was educated at Charterhouse, one of the top public schools in Britain. He later attended Trinity College, Oxford where as twice president of the union he gained a first class honours degree in classics and was elected fellow of Brasenose College. In 1847 he appointed president of the University of Corfu and in 1854 the chief secretary of Ionian Island. Bowen was awarded many honours from the crown including in 1855 the CMG, 1856 the KCMG and following a period as the first Governor of Queensland the GCMG.

Many other governorships as came Bowen's way, in 1867 that of New Zealand, 1873 Victoria, 1879 Mauritius and in 1883 that of Hong Kong. He died in 1899 at Brighton in England.

WILLIAM SEFTON MOOREHOUSE, 1825-1881

The son of a magistrate he was baptised at Knottingley House in Yorkshire in 1825. His first work was on his father's coal carrying vessels later studying law at the Middle Temple and in 1849 he was called to the Bar. After sailing to Lyttelton with his two brothers on the *Cornwall* they bought 50 acres of land at Moa-Bone Point, Redcliffs.

Moorehouse returned to the Bar in 1852 and brought the brig

Gratitude which he used to trade on the Australian route both in his own right and under charter. He entered politics in 1853 when he nominated James Campbell in opposition to FitzGerald in the election for first superintendent. His own political career began in 1854 when he won the Akaroa seat in the House of Representatives, then in 1855 was elected to the Canterbury Provincial Council and in 1857 won the superintendency resigning in 1863 because of financial problems. Moorehouse re-entered the council in 1863 as its member for Kaiapoi and in after being drawn to Westland politics by the goldrush he won the Mount Herbert seat and also that of Westland but opted for the latter as its fist parliamentary member.

There were more financial problems and 1870 saw him bankrupt, however he was appointed Registrar in the Crown Land Department in Wellington. Eighteen seventy four saw him Mayor of Wellington, while in 1875 he won the parliamentary seat of Christchurch and 1879 he held the Ashley seat. Moorehouse died in 1881.

HENRY SEWELL, 1807-1879

Born 1807 in Newport, Isle of Wight the son of a solicitor in an upper middleclass, provincial family Henry was educated at Hyde Abbey preparatory school in Winchester and served articles to be a solicitor. In 1826 he joined the family practice and married Lucinda Nedham, they had six children.

In 1848, following the death of his wife in 1844, he was introduced to the Canterbury Association by John Simeon, M.P. for the Isle of Wight. He remarried in 1850 and arrived in Canterbury in 1853 to settle Canterbury Association affairs and in 1855 resurrected the idea of a college and ensured that one third of Association lands went as an endowment. It is said that "by his financial and legal acumen Sewell salvaged many of the ecclesiastical and educational aspects of the Canterbury plan" (NZ Bibliography, p.391).

By 1853 he was the Member of the House of Representatives for Christchurch town as at 48, in 1856, was asked to form a government. Unfortunately his premiership last for only two weeks and he was succeeded by Fox whose lasted for one week. With Stafford as premier he was appointed as colonial treasurer and virtual deputy premier, in 1860 he was the first Registrar General of Lands and in 1861 Attorney General. Sewell resigned in 1863 in protest again the Maori land confiscation policy but was called back as Attorney General for 1864-65. Between 1866 and 1870 he lived in England returning to New Zealand as Minister of Justice, he again resigned this time over Vogel's contracts and in 1873 left politics to return to England where he died in Cambridge in 1879.

Henry John Tancred, 1816?-1884

Baptist on the Isle of Wight in 1816, Tancred was perhaps the

most 'blue blooded' of the founders. He was the son of Sir Thomas Tancred, the 6th Baronet, who had lands in Yorkshire dating from Norman times. Henry was educated at Rugby school and served in the Hussar Regiment of the Austrian army, but after being handicapped due to a fall from a horse he resigned his commission and bought land in Canterbury through the Association.

In 1850 he arrived in Lyttelton on the *Barbara Gordon* and in 1852 was elected to the Society of Canterbury Land Purchasers and chairman of the Christchurch Colonist's Society. When his brother became the 7th Baronet, Henry took over Malvern Hills station and then in 1853 Ashburton station. Although losing the 1853 election to be superintendent he was elected to the first provincial council. He held a number of political positions including

1853-1866	serving on the Provincial Executive
1856	called to Legislative Council
1858	Minister without portfolio in Stafford ministry
1858-1861	Secretary of Crown Lands and Postmaster General
1862-1863	Minister without portfolio in Domett ministry
1866	retired from Legislative Council
1867-1870	Ashley representative in House of Representatives
1866-1876	being both speaker and deputy superintendent

In addition to his political career he was also a director of various public companies, consul in Christchurch for Austria,

resident magistrate in Lyttelton and Christchurch, keeper of public records, sheriff and commissioner of police. However with his background Henry's major interest was in education. He was heavily involved with Christ's College in both administration and teaching and in 1859 was appointed Hulsean-Chichele Professor of modern history which involved annual lectures on the glories of Byzantium. As chairman of the 1863 Education Commission he was influential in tertiary education and became a leading advocate of the establishment of a colonial university. In 1871 he was elected Chancellor of the University of New Zealand, a position he held until his death in 1884. At a meeting to found the Canterbury Society of Arts Tancred was voted in as its chairman and between 1881 and 1882 became its first president.

WILLIAM FOX 1812?-1893

Born in Westoe , County Durham his father was described as "a man of substance, serving his county as a justice of the peace and deputy lieutenant" (Dictionary of New Zealand Bibliography, 1990. p.134). William gained a Bachelor of Arts from Wadham College, Oxford and entered the Inner Temple in London in 1838 and was called to the Bar in 1842.

He emigrated to New Zealand on the *George Fyfe*. After arrival he published a 6d pamphlet called Colonization and New Zealand in which he said the country had a "well-educated, intelligent native population and a superior class of

immigrant" (Dictionary of New Zealand Bibliography, 1990. p.134). In 1843 he succeeded Wakefield as the New Zealand Company agent in Nelson.

Although most of his political life was in the Wellington and Nelson areas, Fox did stand up for the education of ordinary New Zealanders and with his publications fostered a good impression of the colony therefore attracting the better educated immigrant.

These are only a small sample of the important men who became involved, usually in a political sense, with the growth of the colony and in particular in education. They were all well educated and used this to the best advantage often by serving on educational committees or as heads of the various educational institutions.

ALL OF THE DETAILS ON THESE MEN CAME FROM THE DICTIONARY OF NEW ZEALAND BIBLIOGRAPHY (1990)

APPENDIX FOUR

AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDANCES, 1872-1940

TABLE ONE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1872 - 1878							
SCHOOL NAME	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878
Akaroa	47	75	69	92	106	112	124
Alford Forest					18	28	22
Alford Forest Side						11	
Alford Swamp					12		
Ashburton Forks					16	18	22
Ashburton Main	20	30	47	107	151	178	256
Ashburton South					40	41	
Ashley Bank	35	30	40	45	60	73	72
Balcairn							41
Barrhill							26
Barry's Bay				21	26	32	26
Broadfield	30	25	29	21	30	35	38
Brookside	41		53	86	96	97	91
Carleton					30	33	39
Courtenay	19	18	20	19	20	24	25
Cust	43	52	59	66	87	106	126
Doyleston					44		
Duvauchelle's Bay	37	46	50	47	41	44	37
Eyreton	36	35	21	32	35	41	49
Eyreton West	21	17	20	27	25	36	41
Fernside	8	44	43	62	66	66	66
Flaxton	52	51	28		44	98	24
Flaxton side							24

TABLE ONE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1872 - 1878							
SCHOOL NAME	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878
French Farm					20	14	15
Gebbie's Valley	23	21	23	21	22	25	21
German Bay					43	27	29
German Bay side						8	11
Glentui							12[1]
Governor's Bay	12	21	67	23	21	23	24
Greendale[2]	19	26	25	29	30	34	41
Greenpark	26	41	25	52	55	55	52
Halkett	25	26	53	41	39	44	48
Hororata	32	36	34	42	38	50	61
Hurunui					12	13	19
Kaiapoi		196	207	277	272	254	262
Kaiapoi Island	20	21	21	18	18	16	14
Kaiapoi Isl North			27	24	22	25	23
Kaikoura Suburb							39
Kaikoura Town							59
Killinchy	34	36	39	52	58	51	72
Kimberley				21	20	21	28
Kowai Bush				12	9	16	21
Kowai North Main							79
Kowai North Side	17	25	28	38	42	43	27
Kowai Pass	23	26	23	30	34	41	43
Lakeside				23	34	30	32
Le Bon's Bay				40	39	39	47
Leeston	73	74	57	66	76	137	133

[1] Closed as no teacher

[2] Sometimes also called Camla

TABLE ONE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1872 - 1878							
SCHOOL NAME	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878
Leeston (side)							31
Leithfield	43	47	45	67	77	91	91
Lincoln	30	46	47	59	66	79	96
Little Akaloa	21	22	26	27	30	35	34
Little River		24	20	23	31	38	38
Loburn	31	38	40	43	52	54	54
Longbeach					33	51	33
Longbeach Side					18		22
Lyttelton DHS	238	311	311	391	419	478	486
Malvern		12		35	36	44	62
Manderville Plains	30	26	33	33	35	42	41
Menzies Bay			11				
Mt Grey Downs	33	23	36	57	61	75	83
Mt Somers					14	12	
Ohoka			28		35		
Okain's Bay	33	40	44	38	41	39	43
Oxford East	51	48	57	78	95	104	102
Oxford West	16	21	31	34	60	69	88
Pigeon Bay	19	22	24	13	24	29	23
Pigeon Bay Side							21
Port Levy						21	16
Prebbleton	31	35	35	58	66	68	74
Rakaia Little		20	19	23	25	32	30
Rakaia South				25	50	56	66
Rangiora		119	152	186	209	227	232
Robinson's Bay		27	32	30	27	25	22
Russell's Flat			21	21	21	22	30
Saltwater Creek	35	35	44	54	65	54	59

TABLE ONE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1872 - 1878							
SCHOOL NAME	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878
Selwyn	31	35		50	51	59	58
Selwyn Side		49					
Snowdale			51				
Southbridge	42	44	42	71	93	145	165
Southbrook			52	61	62	64	81
Springston	37	47	45	54	63	79	80
Stoke	30	35		27	33	32	28
Summit Road			40				
Tai Tapu		25	21	36	48	56	70
Templeton	56	77	67	88	83	90	87
View Hill					14	29	35
Waiau							11
Waikuku		28	27	29	31	35	35
Wainui		13	20	24	38	6	8
Wakanui						22	32
Weedons	42	45	53	51	43	38	41
Westerfield					6	10	13
West Melton	27	33	40	34	32	38	38
Willowby							42
Woodend	98	61	95	101	101	104	110
Yaldhurst					31	40	48

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Akaroa	110	105	76	95	102	112	134
Alford Forest	25	29	30	33	32	29	32
Alford Forest Side	16	29					
Amberley			99	113	126	135	140
Amberley (side)			30				
Annat							62
Ashburton Forks	20	22	28	35	31	28	41
Ashburton Main	306	338	315	367	371	396	314
Ashburton Side						45	143
Ashley		78	76	88	85	76	75
Ashley Bank	65[1]						
Ashton							37
Aylesbury		28	27	22	23	22	17
Balcairn	37	40	46	43	38	44	46
Barrhill	16	15	17	21	14	18	19
Barry's Bay	21	22	24	22	29	24	21
Broadfield	32	31	28	27	23	26	31
Brookside	81	80	79	72	74	74	72
Broomfield				36	33	26	26
Broughton	8	9[2]					
Burnham						16	19
Cambridge		17					
Carleton	47	53	56	55	50	46	47
Charteris Bay	21	23	14[3]	14	16	18	17

[1] Name changed to Ashley

[2] Closed 31 March 1881

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Chertsey	18	23	25	26	21	22	27
Courtenay	21	21	24	23	23	22	24
Cust	124	122	124	124	102	106	125
Cust (side)	28	30	29	25	26		
Darfield					22[4]	24	23
Dunsandel	84	68	69	77	69	73	7
Duvauchelle's Bay	41	42	33	48	34	36	42
Elgin		33	33	40	35	41	33
Eyreton	46	44	40	30	28	28	28
Eyreton West	34	46	51	58	54	51	52
Fernside	74	90	86	81	77	82	84
Flaxton	78	87	94	109	116	110	109
Flaxton side	22	21	21	19	18	22	20
Flemington			35[5]	40	52	51	50
French Farm	14	14	12	19	20	23	23
Gebbie's Pass Road	19	11	9	17	19	26	31
Gebbie's Valley	18	22	24	30	28	30	32
German Bay	30	38	44	39	34	29	43
German Bay side	9		18[6]	25	25	19	25
Glentunnel				71	56	64	75
Governor's Bay	27	28	27	28	20	22	26
Greendale	41	54	53	63	49	57	55
Greenpark	59	60	57	62	60	63	67

[3] Half-time school with Gebbie's Pass Road

[4] Opened March quarter

[5] Opened 1 July 1881

[6] Opened 1 April 1881

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Halkett	42	46	39	43	42	42	40
Hind's				29	25	18	19
Hororata	53	42	59	66	60	64	63
Hurunui	13	18	2	14	15	18	20
Irwell	38	36	26	26	27	33	34
Kaiapoi Island	22	20	16	27	25	25	25
Kaiapoi Isl North	28	21	18	21	18	28	34
Kaikoura Suburb	50	54	57	58	54	49	45
Kaikoura Town	65	72	75	85	80	87	89
Killinchy	66	67	77	72	73	73	88
Kimberley	30	33	39	39	35	35	35
Kirwee				39[7]	42	46	45
Kowai Bush	15	15	15	16	28	21	21
Kowai North Main	84	94					
Kowai North Side	13	14					
Kowai Pass	44	99	81	104	103	95	95
Kyle	23	22	16	21	22	19	22
Lakeside	28	41	45	47	43	41	50
Lakeside (side)					22[8]	26	
Lauriston					18[9]	14	19
Le Bon's Bay	42	41	42	42	32	31	39
Leeston	126	134	121	138	128	148	167
Leeston (side)	36	25	31	35	44	50	47
Leithfield	68	76	74	71	72	74	85

[7] Opened 20 December 1881

[8] Opened December quarter 1883

[9] Opened March quarter

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Lincoln	115	111	117	115	128	129	135
Lismore				14	11	13	16
Little Akaloa	25	25	27	26	30	35	31
Little Port Cooper					9[10]	10	7
Little River	42	47	45	50	53	56	73
Loburn	59	57	56	57	51	47	44
Loburn North		49[11]	37	34	32	35	36
Longbeach	39	39	56	46	41	49	54
Longbeach Side	26	27	19	26	27	32	
Lyttelton DHS	478	546	535	538	554	632	599
Malvern	66	82	73	71	86	85	84
Malvern (side)	54	64	62		20	34	
Manderville Plains	43	40	32	39	33	36	30
Manuka Town					15[12]	16	
Mason's Flat			22[13]	30	34	34	26
Methven				30	43	54	59
Mt Grey Downs	81	82	78	90	88	78	49
Mt Somers	14	18	21	19	18	18	19
Newland			20	13	14	14	16
Okain's Bay	42	41	35	39	39	38	38
Oxford East	113	133	147	144	150	156	161
Oxford West	94	102	111	113	109	113	131
Oxford West (side)				23	33	37	37

[10] Opened September quarter

[11] Opened at start of year

[12] Opened December quarter

[13] Opened 25 April 1881

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Pendarves				12	17	20	20
Pigeon Bay	19	29	27	19	21	24	25
Pigeon Bay Side	17	18	22	22	27	29	33
Port Levy	14	17	13	14	10	6	8
Prebbleton	96	107	97	107	96	90	91
Rakaia Little	27	27	26	40	32	32	41
Rakaia South	64	91	87	111	118	120	139
Rangiora	268	274	242	240	218	220	248
Robinson's Bay	23	22	24	25	20	24	22
Rotherham					15[14]	15	12
Russell's Flat	34	40	41	39	39	30	34
Saltwater Creek	48	44	37	36	31	31	34
Seafield	18	18	17	20	19	19	17
Sedgemere							30
Sefton						68	70
Selwyn	61	30	20	21	25	26	25
Southbridge DHS	179	188	177	184	210	206	216
Southbrook	79	95	87	85	109	106	110
South Malvern					34[15]	38	36
Springburn				47	35	40	41
Springston	91	89	91	101	104	102	110
Stoke	30	25	26	32	33	27	28
Summerhill						30	20
Tai Tapu	88	99	108	99	95	89	105
Templeton	72	76	83	77	71	70	86

[14] Opened December quarter

[15] Opened March quarter

TABLE TWO : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1879 - 1885							
SCHOOL NAME	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885
Tinwald	45	64	67	43	74	86	77
View Hill	38	45	45	55	63	67	54
Waiau	17	15	16	20	20	20	26
Waikari				23	27	39	
Waikau					19		
Waikerakikeri							17
Waikuku	42	40	37	28	27	29	33
Wainui	31	30	29	26	27	22	14
Wakanui	48	53	55	51	47	48	51
Wakanui Side				26	22	20	19
Weedons	37	36	36	38	45	39	39
Westerfield	15						
West Melton	40	42	39	37	43	49	48
Willowby	43	51	47	50	42	40	42
Winslow					22[16]	24	23
Woodend	109	106	103	96	91	109	125
Yaldhurst	53	48	43	49	44	45	51

[16] Opened September quarter

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Akaroa	128	155	161	153	145	142	139
Alford Forest	28	31	39	50	50	49	49
Alford Forest Side						19[1]	29
Amberley	135	138	141	143	155	148	146
Annat	64	67	62	66	69	64	52
Ashburton Forks	42	42	33	34	33	36[2]	
Ashburton Main	313	299	304	301	352	428	455
Ashley	98	95	75	69	63	68	58
Ashton	33	40	47	49	52	47	46
Aylesbury	21	17	16	16	15	21	19
Balcairn	45	53	49	50	49	47	50
Barrhill	16	22	22	23	22	24	26
Barry's Bay	23	39	44	48	44	46	39
Belfast Main				148	157	174	183
Belfast Side				13	10	7	9
Broadfield	34	52	47	43	42	34	42
Brookside	73	71	72	65	69	65	52
Broomfield	25	31	30	34	37	33	38
Burnham	24	21	21	21	18	21	24
Carleton	50	44	42	42	45	47	41
Charing Cross	20[3]	21	22	26	31	30	27
Charteris Bay[4]	16	18	21	22	16	16	13

[1] Opened December quarter

[2] Name changed to Greenstreet

[3] Opened December quarter

[4] With Gebbie's Pass Road listed as Governor's Bay South

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Chertsey	25	35	47	45	45	48	47
Clarkville[5]				61	68	69	70
Conway Flat						6[6]	3
Courtenay	25	29	31	39	35	29	25
Cust	113	103	93	79	82	72	74
Darfield	29	36	45	54	56	58	62
Dorie[7]			14	15	12	14	13
Doyleston[8]						97	108
Dromore				26[9]	28	40	43
Dunsandel	74	81	84	82	86	86	89
Duvauchelle's Bay	40	42	40	34	26	28	24
Ealing							18
Eiffelton					27[10]	25	27
Elgin	31	30	109	35	36	42	45
Eyreton	26	26	23	25	24	26	22
Eyreton West	55	56	52	49	52	49	45
Fernside	72	62	68	63	59	61	58
Flaxton	100	91	84	71	75	64	64
Flaxton side	21	19	20	24	25	24	23
Flemington	52	54	54	54	58	63	60
French Farm	28	21	13	16	29	21	25

[5] Formerly Kaiapoi Island North

[6] Opened December quarter

[7] Formerly Acton, opened March quarter

[8] Formerly Leeston Side

[9] Opened June quarter

[10] Opened September quarter

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Gebbie's Valley	30	30	30	29	27	19	18
German Bay	47	28	28	27	34	30	33
German Bay side	21	25	25	21	21	23	21
Glenroy				27[11]	31	27	24
Glentunnel	79	91	86	80	81	78	78
Godley Head						5[12]	5
Gough's Bay	7	10	11	13	11	16	12
Governor's Bay	27	28	29	34	33	40	37
Greendale	63	63	54	59	63	58	57
Greendale Side							17[13]
Greenpark	69	65	61	54	58	74	64
Halkett	39	44	43	41	47	47	43
Hampstead	179	189	223	295	314	276	310
Hind's	17	20	21	29	39	49	45
Hororata	60	70	72	65	63	58	60
Hurunui	17	22	18	17	17	17	15
Hurunui (side)		27[14]					
Irwell	30	31	35	34	35	34	42
Kaiapoi	411	404	436	451	461	469	471
Kaiapoi Island	22	22	21	20	19	21	21
Kaiapoi Isl North	40	34	42				
Kaikoura Suburb	50	55	65	71	66	55	67
Kaikoura Town	97	110	130	130	133	151	149

[11] Opened June quarter

[12] Opened December quarter

[13] Opened December quarter

[14] Opened September quarter

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Killinchy	82	97	86	81	76	55	61
Kimberley	38	39	29	20	23	21	29
Kirwee	44	47	46	43	42	51	48
Kowai Bush	19	19	17	19	28	33	29
Kowai Pass	93	105	105	98	100	97	86
Kyle	20	22	20	23	19	21	20
Ladbrooks[15]					38	40	42
Lakeside	45	47	48	49	45	35	38
Lauriston	24	29	26	28	31	28	34
Le Bon's Bay	40	35	32	27	29	34	34
Leeston	174	171	154	165	173	136	145
Leeston (side)	51	51	41	60	80[16]		
Leithfield	78	71	66	62	60	52	51
Lincoln	137	135	123	120	114	121	117
Lismore	15	17	16	23	14	14	11
Little Akaloa[17]	30	30	23	22	18	21	24
Little Akaloa side		25[18]	24	24	21	19	19
Little River Main[19]	82	84	97	114	107	116	110
Little River side					22	26	24
Loburn	36	39	37	38	33	31	30
Loburn North	36	46	40	45	44	38	37
Longbeach	49	45	47	48	52	25	57

[15] Formerly Prebbleton Side

[16] Name changed to Doyleston

[17] Shared teacher with Little Akaloa Side

[18] Opened June quarter

[19] Shared teacher with Little River side

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Lyndhurst	16	18	21	24	22	25	21
Lyttelton	613	582	515	584	637	630	655
Lyttelton West Sde		88[20]	87	103	400	86	87
Malvern	97	90	82	81	79	83	77
Manderville Plains	28	28	27	27	31	25	23
Mason's Flat	21	17	18	20	25	25	25
Mayfield		15[21]	13	10	15	11	15
Mayfield Side		14	14[22]				
Medbury[23]			22	22	23	23	24
Methven	60	48	41	56	59	73	78
Mt Grey Downs	47	42	44	37	40	44	41
Mt Somers	37	39	43	38	37	38	39
Newland	16	18	17	14	11	11	11
Okain's Bay	41	43	44	44	45	51	43
Okuku		6[24]	6[25]				
Oxford East	156	155	147	153	175	163	173
Oxford West	126	119	134	146	144	116	109
Oxford West (side)	37	37[26]					
Pendarves	19	23	22	19	18	18	19
Pigeon Bay	19	19	22	24	23	29	29

[20] Opened June quarter

[21] Opened June quarter

[22] Renamed Ruapuna

[23] Formerly Hurunui side

[24] Opened September quarter

[25] Closed June quarter

[26] Name changed to Woodside

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Pigeon Bay Side	35	35	39	44	41	40	36
Port Levy	10	12	15	13	13	10	12
Porter's Pass						14[27]	13
Prebbleton	85	86	87	95	101	93	102
Prebbleton (side)				33[28]			
Rakaia Little	43	44	44	41	40	32	30
Rakaia South	150	151	160	161	153	147	154
Rangiora	258	277	292	302	319	365	340
Riverside							27[29]
Robinson's Bay	24	23	23	23	23	19	20
Rokeby							16[30]
Rotherham	22	24	23	20	28	31	29
Ruapuna[31]				12	11	13	12
Russell's Flat	34	35	36	38	40	43	38
Saltwater Creek	34	26	20	27	27	21	23
Seafield	16	19	16	13	15	13	13
Sedgemere	26	29	33	33	33	30	38
Sefton	66	62	63	70	70	81	77
Selwyn	24	26	26	27	32	28	29
Southbridge DHS	192	201	207	232	233	249	238
Southbrook	108	133	142	154	154	154	159
South Malvern	39	48	48	45	47	48	41

[27] Opened March quarter

[28] Opened June quarter

[29] Listed as Wakanui, Riverside and opened June quarter

[30] Opened September quarter

[31] Formerly Mayfield side

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Springburn	46	50	46	51	55	56	53
Springston	106	117	120	103	105	106	101
Stoke	23	17	13	19	17	16	16
Summerhill	22	18	16	18	19	25	26
Tai Tapu	104	95	99	104	93	93	88
Teddington		32	32	32	31	29	23
Templeton	83	80	74	75	77	86	87
Tinwald	74	79	82	90	96	102	112
View Hill	63	62	46	40	38	34	38
View Hill Plains							16
Waiau	25	26	31	32	30	26	27
Waikari	51	56	73	76	74	78	89
Waikerakikeri	17	13[32]					
Waikuku	28	29	33	31	29	30	31
Wainui	15	20	23	27	27	21	18
Waitohi						20[33]	20
Wakanui	51	57	60	65	61	53	48
Wakanui Side	20	17	16	14	15	17	
Weedon	37	41	42	42	37	39	33
Westerfield			13[34]	19	21	21	18
West Melton	48	60	54	59	62	59	55
Willowby	38	42	41	39	43	42	42
Winchmore				25[35]	26	27	27

[32] Closed end of March

[33] Opened December quarter

[34] Opened June quarter

[35] Opened December quarter

TABLE THREE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1886 - 1892							
SCHOOL NAMES	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892
Winslow	28	27	25	28	27	31	31
Woodend	132	132	115	127	129	125	120
Woodside			43	55	58	58	56
Yaldhurst	59	65	63	62	146	62	58

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Akaroa	138	146	158	157	154	122	116
Alford Forest	40	41	42	40	34	34	35
Alford Forest Side	39						
Amberley	154	135	129	121	112	121	113
Annat	52	48	42	47	42	37	36
Ashburton Forks	25	24	23	25	28	21	24
Ashburton Main	437	421	424	418	385	337	336
Ashburton Side					50[1]	48	50
Ashley	52	51	46	50	49	52	44
Ashton	46	51	51	46	44	43	38
Awaroa					14	14	13
Aylesbury	19	27	24	25	26	29	26
Balcairn	46	47	48	51	43	39	42
Barr Hill	24	23	20	19	17	20	19
Barry's Bay	32	35	31	31	25	24	22
Bealey				3[2]	2		
Belfast Main	184	178	194	210	220	227	226
Belfast Side	10	11	11	14	13	12	11
Big Bay						16[3]	16
Broadfield	35	34	32	42	37	37	30
Brookside	53	54	53	51	50	53	53
Broomfield	41	37	32	32	24	22	20
Burnham	25	26	21	24	16	13	13

[1] Opened September quarter, also called Allenton

[2] Opened June quarter

[3] Opened June quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bushside		39	44	47	43	37	34
Carleton	42	42	36	36	34	40	44
Cass					5[4]	4[5]	
Charing Cross	26	21	22	21	25	25	23
Charteris Bay	12	9	9[6]				
Chertsey	55	49	54	59	53	46	41
Chertsey side				25[7]			
Clarence Bridge		3[8]	5	6	8	8	7[9]
Clarkville	76	79	72	71	69	66	62
Coalgate[10]				32	38	40	30
Conway Flat			3	6			
Courtenay	15	10	21	26	24	26	26
Craigieburn				4[11]	4	4	5
Culverden				9[12]	13	15	16
Cust	74	72	80	78	76	74	67
Dalberg				14[13]	14	18	17

[4] Opened June quarter

[5] Closed end of March quarter

[6] Closed June quarter

[7] Opened September quarter, named changed to Overdale

[8] Opened December quarter

[9] Closed end of June quarter

[10] Was Glentunnel side

[11] Opened June quarter

[12] Opened September quarter

[13] Opened December quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Darfield	55	68	78	69	74	69	71
Domett			22[14]	30	30	27	28
Dorie	16	23	25	31	32	26	26
Doyleston	106	120	109	95	100	103	81
Dromore	42	39	39	40	42	41	42
Dunsandel	93	83	82	82	76	80	82
Duvauchelle's Bay	19	21	18	13	14	12	19
Ealing	19	19	25	20	22	22	20
Eiffelton	23	17	16	16	16	19	23
Elgin	46	44	39	42	42	38	29
Ellesmere					18	20	24
Eyreton	20	20	26	31	34	40	43
Eyreton West	45	48	51	52	60	56	53
Fernside	50	52	59	59	57	47	47
Flaxton	74	81	76	62	66	67	70
Flaxton side	23	26	23	30	25	26	23
Flemington	56	52	50	48	43	35	27
French Farm	26	28	28	26	23	23	24
Gebbie's Valley	17	20	20	17[15]			
German Bay	39	44	49	52	48	41	38
German Bay side	22	24	25	23	22	18	15
Glenroy	26	28	37	41	34	35	30
Glentunnel	74	65	61	60	51	56	54
Glentunnel Side	25[16]	25	28[17]				

[14] Opened June quarter

[15] Closed June quarter

[16] Opened September quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Godley Head	5[18]						
Gough's Bay	12	10	10	10	8	9	9
Governor's Bay	31	30	28	51	35	30	28
Grassmere						2	2[19]
Greendale	55	56	55	51	52	47	47
Greendale Side	22	21	23	21	22	22	21
Greenpark	61	62	63	71	69	59	53
Greenstreet	27	32	37	37	41	35	19
Greta Valley	14	14	15	17	19	21	23
Halkett	48	46	44	47	41	41	45
Hampstead	298	310	336	354	351	312	304
Hanmer Plains				11	10	12	14
Happy Valley					4[20]		
Highbank					31[21]	44	45
Hillside							
Hind's	54	61	56	60	59	42	38
Hind's Side						24	21
Hororata	66	65	57	55	51	47	43
Huntingdon			18[22]	21	20	21	18
Hurunui	18	22	23	21	21	19	14
Irwell	41	44	44	48	42	41	43

[17] Name changed to Coalgate

[18] Closed end of June quarter

[19] Closed end March quarter

[20] Opened June quarter and closed end of September quarter

[21] Opened June quarter

[22] Opened June quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Kaiapoi	460	461	472	481	464	448	418
Kaiapoi Island	23	19	21	25	25	28	24
Kaikoura Suburb	72	74	72	73	67	72	72
Kaikoura Town	144	135	133	128	119	115	121
Kaituna			9[23]	10	11	11	10
Killinchy	60	52	50	45	37	37	36
Kimberley	30	36	27	26	27	25	26
Kirikiri[24]			17	19	21	17	18
Kirwee	57	45	44	43	41	44	40
Kowai Bush	26	25	26	26	25	27	31
Kowai Pass	86	85	74	71	65	63	68
Kyle	18	15	15	15	22	14	15
Ladbrooks	45	42	41	42	42	46	43
Lakeside	36	40	37	34	32	32	37
Lauriston	38	39	40	51	46	42	44
Leamington				12[25]	14	12	19
Le Bon's Bay	33	38	41	38	40	38	39
Leeston	142	128	122	136	135	127	98
Leithfield	48	60	60	59	55	49	44
Lincoln	125	112	118	105	94	87	75
Lismore	12	11	15	12	13	20	22
Little Akaloa	24	22	19	18	21	19	21
Little Akaloa side	17	17	20	18	19	19	21
Little River	97	103	106	100	99	101	89

[23] Opened December quarter

[24] Formerly View Hill Plains

[25] Opened December quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Little River side	27	29	30	27	27	28	26
Loburn	33	35	34	43	44	42	40
Loburn North	36	35	37	43	41	42	43
Longbeach	47	45	43	43	53	50	48
Lowcliffe	11[26]	14	18	18	18	25	22
Lyndhurst	21	21	19	14	14	13	18
Lyttelton	691	629	614	564	571	524	489
Lyttelton Side	84						
Lyttelton West[27]		154	183	184	188	185	186
Mackenzie		21[28]	83	92	97	110	96
Malvern	85	94	95	91	88	102	106
Manderville Plains	22	24	20	20	19	16	12
Mason's Flat	26	26	26	28	34	41	39
Mayfield	21	28	29	32	34	37	39
Medbury	27	31	33	31	30	27	27
Methven	88	96	93	99	89	90	100
Montserrat		6[29]	7	6	5	5	4[30]
Mt Grey Downs	39	36	35	28	31	27	27
Mt Somers	41	43	35	36	31	30	32
Mt White				3[31]	3	2	2
Newland	14	17	16	19	21	25	22

[26] Opened September quarter

[27] Was Lyttelton side

[28] Opened June quarter

[29] Opened December quarter

[30] Closed end of June quarter

[31] Opened June quarter

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Okain's Bay	46	45	46	52	53	49	49
Okuku					14[32]	13	12
Okuti Valley							17[33]
Onuku	14	15	15	13	13	11	11
Overdale[34]					25	26	29
Oxford East	173	175	188	181	176	165	155
Oxford West	108	95	98	104	95	90	87
Pendarves	15	6	3[35]				
Pigeon Bay	26	25	21	23	17	16	16
Pigeon Bay Side	35	38	47	39	24	23	23
Port Levy	11	13	12	11	8	11	12
Porter's Pass	12	13	15	16	13	15	15
Port Robinson			22	22	24	26	29
Prebbleton	105	102	105	96	91	92	93
Quail Island				5[36]			
Rabbit Island				27[37]	28	25	28
Rakaia Little	30	33	36	36	36	35	36
Rakaia South	175	172	186	172	171	172	148
Rangiora	353	356	360	374	374	390	348
Riverside	29[38]	31	31	24	25	22	20

[32] Opened June quarter

[33] Opened March quarter

[34] Formerly Chertsey side

[35] Closed March quarter

[36] Opened March quarter and closed September quarter

[37] Opened September quarter

[38] Was Wakanui side

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Robinson's Bay	18	16	14	14	13	10	8
Rokeby	15	17	19	17	14	18	16
Rolleston	36	39	44	46	44	46	43
Rotherham	29	35	36	36	30	32	32
Ruapuna	15	17	17	17	13	12	15
Russell's Flat	31	33	35	26	21	20	22
Saltwater Creek	24	25	24	25	24	25	25
Seafield	12	14	19	20	19	17	13
Sedgemere	40	36	29	32	31	27	27
Sefton	69	73	74	68	70	61	60
Selwyn	31	32	31	32	31	29	26
Southbridge DHS	225	229	198	194	185	172	157
Southbrook	156	146	141	130	139	145	142
South Malvern	35	40	42	33	23	16	19
Spotswood		16[39]	17	25	27	28	29
Springburn	49	49	65	67	60	70	70
Springston	104	114	113	119	106	93	85
Springston Side					37[40]		
Springston Sth[41]						48	50
Stoke	19	19	20	20	19	20	19
Summerhill	26	32	26	28	21	18	14
Tai Tapu	86	91	90	89	91	85	78
Teddington	20	23	22	18	19	18	15
Templeton	91	94	83	75	70	73	73

[39] Opened September quarter

[40] Opened June quarter

[41] Was Springston side

TABLE FOUR : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1893 - 1899							
SCHOOL NAMES	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
The Peaks[42]							22
Tinwald	106	120	118	122	122	118	109
View Hill	37	35	35	24	23	19	18
View Hill Plains	14	15[43]					
Waiau	26	32	38	41	40	40	39
Waikari	90	89	87	84	71	68	71
Waikuku	29	32	32	34	33	34	34
Wainui	18	22	25	24	24	23	23
Waitohi	21	24	23	25	23	23[44]	
Wakanui	47	46	39	37	38	37	36
Wakanui Side	13	13	11	13	14	11	13
Weedon	27	19	24	22	24	26	22
Westerfield	20	18	21	24	18	19	24
West Melton	53	60	59	55	47	48	39
Willowby	41	42	34	32	30	39	37
Winchmore	28	30	29	27	27	29	30
Winslow	30	27	29	28	35	39	36
Woodend	115	116	112	114	112	100	96
Woodside	56	50	48	42	40	34	37
Woodstock			12[45]	21	23	22	20
Yaldhurst	54	59	57	64	60	51	45

[42] Was Waitohi

[43] Name changed to Kirikiri

[44] Name changed to The Peaks

[45] Opened June quarter

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Akaroa DHS	92	106	114	113	111	101	82
Alford Forest	31	30	32	32	33	28	22
Amberley	104	104	102	116	110	103	76
Anama[1]			19	16	11	10	15
Annat	38	44	45	47	47	53	52
Ashburton Forks	30	30	24	14	11	14	9
Ashburton	348	347	343	341	415	345	374
Ashburton Side	60	72	68	60		57	58
Ashley	49	45	51	49	48	49	52
Ashley Gorge					21	24	24
Ashton	30	28	29	28	26	27	26
Ataahua[2]							16
Awaroa	15	17	17	17	16	15	16
Aylesbury	23	26	19	24	28	24	21
Balcairn	38	35	25	24	28	30	35
Barrhill	27	23	29	29	32	34	34
Barry's Bay	25	21	25	22	18	15	13
Belfast	244	218	227	245	235	219	202
Belfast Side	13	14	16	16	16	9	8
Big Bay	16	11	10	11	15	18[3]	
Birch Hill	9	13					
Broadfield	26	25	25	21	21	25	28
Brookside	57	46	46	44	45	42	38

[1] Built at Hekeao settlement

[2] Was Big Bay

[3] Name changed to Ataahua

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Broomfield	17	19	20	18	18	20	20
Burnham	12	10	13	11	14	16	18
Bushside	37	30	30	30	28	32	91
Carew					11	10	10
Carleton	44	38	42	37	30	29	32
Charing Cross	23	23	21	18	15	16	12
Chertsey	27	39	42	36	33	35	38
Clarence Bridge	6			10	10	9	8
Clarence Estate							3[4]
Clarkville	62	59	57	57	53	51	50
Coalgate	15						
Cooper's Creek[5]					50	49	43
Courtenay	28	30	23	20	22	17	17
Craigieburn[6]	7	6	7				
Culverden	19	18	16	19	17	15	13
Cust	63	56	61	54		45	53
Darfield	46	41	43	57	57	49	35
Domett	19	25	24	27	28	24	27
Dorie	28	16	19	15	15	14	13
Doyleston	71	67	65	63	67	69	76
Dromore	42	44	43	40	44	34	33
Dunsandel	78	74	70	69	80	81	76
Duvauchelle's Bay	22	25	21	18	27	30	33

[4] Opened June quarter

[5] Formerly Woodside

[6] Half-time, aided school with Mount White. Attendence figures cover both schools.

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Ealing	20	16	16	15	13	12	9
Edendale						4[7]	
Eiffelton	27	27	24	22	22	17	23
Elgin	23	23	23	19	21	17	14
Ellesmere	26	26	27	35	34	36	37
Eyreton	47	44	46	42	42	35	31
Eyreton West	46	47	46	49	47	43	46
Fairton		20	25	30	32	30	30
Fernside	55	48	47	42	42	45	47
Flaxton	59	59	54	50		71	76
Flaxton side	24	24	23	25			
Flea Bay				7	8	8	7
Flemington	25	23	25	24	25	15	13
French Farm	26	32	26	23	20	19	22
German Bay	27	26	27	26	32	35	37
German Bay side	8	6[8]					
Glenroy	29	25	19	19	18	21	19
Glentunnel	73	71	71	68	72	62	66
Gough's Bay	9	7					
Governor's Bay	21	24	27	28	30	29	28
Greendale	50	43	35	33	37	31	35
Greendale Side	21	20	24	22	20	21	18
Greenpark	46	45	44	42	42	44	49
Greenstreet	18	20	18	12	14	14	15
Greta Valley	20	19	19	20	18	19	18

[7] Opened June quarter but does appear again

[8] Closed December quarter

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Halkett		36	33	31	28	23	22
Hampstead	276	269	281	259	255	259	269
Hanmer Plains	17	16	20	25	25	24	24
Hapuku[9]						20	21
Highbank	48	43	47	48	49	51	46
Hind's	42	47	40	41	50	48	47
Hind's Side	20	15	11				
Homebush		15	15	14	11	10	9
Hororata	39	41	41	41	43	33	31
Horsley Downs			13	14	19	18	19
Hundalee	17	16	20	16	17	14	13
Huntingdon	17	21	22	19	14	12	12
Hurunui	14	17	12	14	13	12	12
Island Bay			7		6	7	9
Irwell	46	48	45	42	43	46	46
Kaiapoi	422	430	417	403	400	380	345
Kaiapoi Island	24	23	24	21	16	15	17
Kaikoura Suburb	75	77	72	61	65	68	68
Kaikoura Town	110	123	127	128	134	111	112
Kaituna Valley	8	7	8	10	9	7	9
Killinchy	30	29	32	33	31	33	37
Kimberley	29	27	28	30	30	30	30
Kirikiri	20	20	26	24	24	22	23
Kirwee	42	40	39	31	27	34	29
Kowai Bush	31	28	32	26	26	22	21
Kowai Pass	61	57	56	51[10]			

[9] Opened March quarter, was formerly Kincaid Downs

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Kyle	16	15	14	13	12	10	10
Ladbrookes	54	58	63	66	67	64	55
Lakeside	31	40	46	48	52	61	57
Lauriston	34	30	26	23	21	25	28
Leamington	20	18	15	12	15	11	8[11]
Le Bon's Bay	35	38	39	35	34	33	38
Leeston	90	89	98	96	93	92	88
Leithfield	36	42	44	39	43	43	41
Lincoln	70	63	60	58	68	73	58
Lismore	17	15	16	22	23	22	16
Little Akaloa	21	22	24	17	18	21	24
Little Akaloa side	22	21	21	24	28	27	24
Little River	81	77	73	67	62	56	56
Little River side	24	26	26	23	25	27	26
Loburn	47	45	46	41	35	30	34
Loburn North	40	36	32	31	32	31	29
Long Bay					6	5	4
Long Bay 2						7[12]	7
Longbeach	47	48	53	51	47	45	40
Lowcliffe	20	17	20	21	24	18	16
Lyndhurst	23	24	21	16	18	20	22
Lyttelton	469	433	423	416	455	447	381
Lyttelton West	176	182	174	164	170	163	163
Mackenzie	90	96	87	96	92	97	91

[10] Name changed to Springfield

[11] Closed June quarter

[12] Opened June quarter

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Malvern	99	86	87	87	88	79	72
Manderville Plains	10	12	13	20	26	26	23
Marawiti		14	11	11	17	8[13]	
Mason's Flat	32	36	33	25	25	25	34
Mayfield	48	48	46	44	44	42	42
Medbury	23	30	29	26	23	24	25
Methven	91	90	92	99	95	101	98
Midland Railway			27	25	23	35	38
Motukarara				44	43	39	37
Mt Grey Downs	29	23	20	20	21	21	23
Mt Somers	35	31	37	36	32	36	33
Mt White[14]							
Newland	21	16	12	13	12	13	12
Okain's Bay	44	48	47	45	48	45	46
Okuku	14	13	13	11			
Okuti Valley	14	12	8	10	10	11	7[15]
Omihi	23	22	22	20	24	31	28
Onuku		13	9				
Overdale	27	23	24	22	27	23	19
Oxford				148	142	136	
Oxford East	137	153	162				137
Oxford West	89	84	85	84	69	67	66
Pendarves							16[16]

[13] Closed March quarter

[14]Half-time, aided school with Craigieburn
Attendence figures for Craigieburn also cover Mount White

[15] Closed March quarter

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Pigeon Bay	16	16	18	19	17	18	16
Pigeon Bay Side	23	23	19	21	21	17	15
Port Hills		9	11	13	15	14	18
Port Levy	11	12	9	10	12	14	13
Porter's Pass	15	13	8				
Port Robinson	25	23	22	21	22	22	17
Prebbleton	89	87	106	109	112	112	106
Rabbit Island	35	39	48				
Rakaia Little	31	19	20	16	16	14	10
Rakaia South	135	147	151	140	122	127	130
Rangiora	344	318	315	296	331	318	297
Riverside	23	23	27	24	23	19	19
Robinson's Bay		9	9	8	8	8	9
Rokeby	12	12	14	14	13	11	12
Rolleston	37	32	30	37	42	46	44
Rotherham	26	25	24	28	29	38	32
Ruapuna	15	16	22	22	28	28	31
Russell's Flat	23	14	14	14	13	12	14
Saltwater Creek	24	21	22	27	27	24	23
Scargill				17	12	18	25
Seafield	13	12	11	12	13	14	10
Sedgemere	27	26	22	23	23	22	23
Sefton	71	72	84	78	74	79	86
Selwyn	23	22	19	17	19	18	18
Southbridge	155	145	148	151	167	170	120
Southbrook	130	122	114	115	136	137	147

[16] Opened June quarter

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
South Malvern	20	17	18	21	34	36	33
Spotswood	33	38	41	44	46	48	50
Springburn	59	57	54	47	38	43	51
Springfield[17]						49	46
Springston	76	79	74	65	62	66	61
Springston Sth	51	49	46	45	48	44	40
Stoke	13	14	15	16	16	16	16
Summerhill	15	15	14	11	17	16	17
Tai Tapu	81	72	79	78	71	75	85
Teddington	13	12	12	10	12	17	21
Templeton	72	76	82	84	101	103	102
The Peaks	20	21	26	24	21	22	17
Tinwald	111	111	109	95	95	91	92
Valetta						5	
View Hill	19	24	21	22	20	18	25
Waiau	41	45	48	47	61	68	68
Waiau Ferry	7	10	10	10	11	10	10[18]
Waikari	72	67	58	60	59	55	47
Waikuku	28	32	32	39	38	40	28
Wainui	23	26	27	21	25	26	23
Wakanui	34	32	28	24	28	23	18
Wakanui Side	12	12	14	11	9	12	13[19]
Weedons	21	22	22	24	23	26	25
Westerfield	23	23	26	21	18	22	22

[17] Was Kowai Pass

[18] Closed June quarter

[19] Name changed to Seaview

TABLE FIVE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1900 - 1906							
SCHOOL NAMES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
West Melton	52	49	43	38	36	31	25
Willowby	33	32	35	30	33	37	37
Winchmore	27	33	28	30	32	32	31
Winslow	34	36	36	35	38	36	35
Woodend	101	108	111	109	110	106	113
Woodside	42	42	44	44[20]			
Woodstock	17	16	14	15	16	20	20
Yaldhurst	43	50	48	43	44	41	44

[20] Name changed to Cooper's Creek

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Akaroa DHS	73	106	108	110	118	119	115
Alford Forest	19	22	20	19	22	24	26
Amberley DHS	92	88	90	93	91	89	83
Anama	14	17	16	10	14	19	24
Annat	52	51	48	48	46	38	42
Ashburton Forks	8	10	6[1]				
Ashburton Main	318	405	447	459	459	458	448
Ashley	50	47	44	40	39	45	45
Ashley Gorge	20	19	19	23	23	22	24
Ashton	28	28	30	29	28	27	28
Ataahua	12	15	12	9	9	9	14
Awaroa	9	18	15	9	9	8	11
Aylesbury	20	22	17	15	17	19	18
Balcairn	36	37	45	44	41	36	34
Barrhill	30	27	27	29	27	26	21
Barry's Bay	15	18	16	18	18	22	18
Bealey			3	3	11	9	
Belfast	198	207	203	198	207	215	206
Birdling's Flat					9	11	10
Broadfield	24	22	22	25	27	29	30
Brookside	44	45	43	47	43	38	35
Broomfield	18	21	20	20	20	22	23
Burnham	18	24	14	17	16	16	24
Bushside	30	26	21	16	16	16	10
Camla	17	14	14	17	18	16	13
Carew	27	13	17	18	16	15	16

[1] Closed December

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Carleton	27	24	30	32	36	38	34
Charing Cross	14	12	12	13	11	14	15
Chertsey	38	38	37	36	31	26	26
Chorlton	22	18	18	19	16	15	17
Clarence Bridge	7	11	9	5			
Clarence Estate	2						
Clarkville	43	47	48	42	41	40	45
Conway Flat			9	7	5	6	6
Cooper's Creek	38	34	30	27	31	30	30
Courtenay	15	14	12	14	15	13	15
Culverden	15	19	22	26	29	31	34
Cust	58	79	69	61	66	65	66
Darfield DHS	31	41	24	25	24	22	56
Domett	31	28	28	27	28	25	27
Dorie	16	17	18	13	15	17	18
Doyleston	79	77	81	81	76	74	70
Dromore	29	31	30	27	25	27	28
Dunsandel	67	61	53	59	71	68	54
Duvauchelle's Bay	33	28	31	30	32	29	34
Ealing	10	12	11	11	15	16	13
Eiffelton	22	25	24	16	18	18	18
Elgin	15	15	15	17	21	21	17
Ellesmere	38	45	38	41	40	34	28
Ethelton					4	4	4
Eyreton	29	29	29	28	31	26	23
Eyreton West	43	46	48	48	52	45	44
Fairton	29	30	27	25	35	40	48
Fernside	47	54	54	55	62	62	57

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Flaxton	77	72					
Flea Bay	5						
Flemington	11	12	12	12	13	18	15
French Farm	20	24	20	20	18	19	15
Fyvie							13
Gebbie's Valley					11	18	18
German Bay	41	39	40	44	39	26	26
Glen Kowhai						17	19
Glen Hope						2	
Glenroy	14	14	16	16	18	17	17
Glentunnel	68	75	75	84	89	93	98
Governor's Bay	23	20	21	24	23	16	15
Greendale	38	37	38	40	39	37	37
Greenpark	48	52	47	47	45	43	41
Greenstreet	16	17	12	11	13	19	24
Greta Valley	17	14	18	17	20	16	16
Halkett	22	24	22	22	20	19	19
Hampstead	258	285	294	307	301	303	296
Hanmer Plains	24	28	30	25	25	23	25
Hapuku	21	19	23	30	30	30	39
Heathstock[2]				4			
Highbank	46	49	47	41	45	42	47
Hillside	29	32[3]					
Hind's	47	52	65	74	88	74	65
Homebush	9	16	16	16	16	21	20

[2] Household school

[3] Name changed to Puaha

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Hororata	33	38	38	39	42	41	49
Horsley Downs	20	23	23	27	30	35	44
Hundalee	11	10	10	10	12	10	9
Huntingdon	11	8					
Hurunui	10	10	10	11	8	8	8
Island Bay	10						
Irwell	42						
Kaiapoi DHS	329	366	371	372	405	398	400
Kaiapoi Island	12	8	11	13	15	13	13
Kaikoura Suburb	60	62	60	62	69	86	76
Kaikoura Town	118	132	130	124	106	104	97
Kaituna Valley	8	12	13	13	13	9	8
Keinton Combe					4	3	6
Killinchy	42	37	33	26	29	37	47
Kimberley	23	22	20	20	20	19	18
Kirikiri	25	29	26	24	29	27	24
Kirwee	25	28	31	24	22	21	23
Kowai Bush	20	20	21	23	22	23	19
Kukupa		15	15	11	10	9	8
Kyle	7	9	9				
Ladbrooks	49	48	43	45	47	42	40
Lakeside	55	52	47	47	37	29	30
Lauriston	25	30	29	32	40	36	38
Leader Valley						19	1
Le Bon's Bay	40	42	48	44	49	49	40
Leeston	87	91	90	96	111	106	84
Leithfield	37	30	31	26	33	37	35
Lincoln DHS	56	69	71	88	101	97	98

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Lismore	14	16	23	22	38	26	21
Little Akaloa	20	20	20	19	22	21	18
Little River no.2		25	22	21	21	18	
Little River Main	59	58	49	44	53	44	46
Loburn	27	28	34	33	36	36	39
Loburn North	24	24	28	29	31	37	37
Long Bay	4	7					6
Long Bay 2	8						
Longbeach	38	39	38	34	34	31	31
Lowcliffe	17	22	22	22	24	23	20
Lyndhurst	22						
Lynnford						23	21
Lyttelton DHS	384	468	473	473	484	465	459
Lyttelton West	147	163	163	164	164	164	166
Mackenzie	73	81	87	87	94	92	96
Malvern[4]	62	61					
Manderville Plains	24						
Mason's Flat	34	27	25	20	24	23	26
Mayfield	39	39	38	41	41	37	41
Mead	18	21	24	24	28	29	23
Medbury	23	25	25	27	28	28	26
Methven	88	90	95	107	96	105	83
Midland Railway	45	61	64	31	33	18	12
Motukarara	34	38	36	40	45	24	25
Mt Grey Downs	22	24	19	19	21	23	23
Mt Somers	30	35	38	37	40	36	43

[4] Name changed later to Sheffield

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Newland	9	9	8	8	9	8	6
Ohoka			87	88	86	76	74
Okain's Bay	45	43	43	44	44	42	44
Okuti Valley							8
Omihi	25	31	39	35	39	43	43
Overdale	17	17	15	14	16	13	12
Oxford East	130	131	131	124	116	115	127
Oxford West	68	63	61	61	54	48	56
Pendarves	15	11	9	9	13	15	15
Pigeon Bay	13	15	14	14	15	15	17
Pigeon Bay Side	14[5]						
Port Levy	15	13	17	16	15	13	11
Port Robinson	18	12	10	12	13	13	10
Prebbleton	105	109	104	91	91	90	77
Puaha[6]			34	37	33	36	38
Rakaia Little	8						
Rakaia South	124	117	115	121	134	119	106
Rangiora	274	285	255	251	253	251	238
Rapaki		21	17	19	19	19	18
Riverside	20	18	17	17	16	13	14
Robinson's Bay	8	9	10	6	Closed	12	12
Rokeby	14	17	18	18	19	24	21
Rolleston	40	46	46	39	39	43	38
Rotherham	26	26	31	31	37	35	35
Ruapuna	28	30	24	28	29	32	31

[5] Name changed to Kukupa

[6] Formerly Hillside

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Russell's Flat	15	16	15	12	12	13	12
Saltwater Creek	25	25	24	21	22	19	21
Scargill	7	13	17	15	19	12	16
Seafield	8	8	8	10	16	16	13
Seaview	13	10	11	11	11	10	11
Sedgemere	17	17	21	19	23	22	20
Sefton	77	70	65	66	74	76	67
Selwyn	18	20	19	19	18	19	18
Southbridge DHS	121	147	145	157	168	159	158
Southbrook	131	140	135	137	139	128	126
South Malvern	29	28	29	30	29	28	29
Spencerville	7	9	12	14	16	17	17
Spotswood	46	44	65	41	44	40	34
Springbank[7]							21
Springburn	44	36	35	37	36	29	27
Springfield	39	43	40	41	49	47	47
Springston	59	64	65	62	71	68	71
Springston Sth	32	38	40	36	84	29	35
Stoke	15	16	19	23	24	20[8]	
Summerhill	15		18	13	16	15	13
Swannanoa		27	33	31	36	38	35
Tai Tapu	84	76	81	91	95	92	87
Teddington	14	9	11	10	13	13	14
Templeton	95	92	89	99	107	108	103
Te Pirita						13	15

[7] Formerly Stoke

[8] Name changed to Springbank

TABLE SIX : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1907 - 1913							
SCHOOL NAMES	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
The Peaks	16	19	21	18	21	18	16
Tinwald	95	97	94	100	107	102	126
Tuahiwi		41	42	40	36	33	29
View Hill	29	26	23	22	25	19	16
Virginia					3	3	8
Waddington			60	66	64	70	70
Waiau	67	65	60	52	58	69	61
Waikari	44	50	50	54	49	45	36
Waikuku	24	26	28	29	30	31	29
Wainui	23	21	23	26	27	28	29
Wairewa							16
Wakanui	20	16	18	20	22	22	24
Weedons	29	36	35	31	21	20	23
Westerfield	22	24	24	28	30	34	35
West Melton	25	27	29	26	27	21	21
Willowby	38	39	36	33	40	37	37
Winchmore	27	32	27	24	22	19	19
Winslow	31	33	38	39	39	39	38
Woodend	106	104	105	106	109	102	95
Woodstock	19	19	19	18	18	9	9
Yaldhurst	40	39	43	49	41	36	35

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Akaroa DHS	121	122	116	93	102	122	124
Albury				57	59	61	62
Alford Forest	23	25	29	30	26	27	27
Allenton			124	139	124	122	122
Amberley	91	88	68	83	90	98	78
Anama	31	32	30	29	28	28	31
Annat	50	46	42	46	39	39	35
Ashburton Forks	13	15	17	18	16	15	17
Ashburton Main	469	492	371	391	389	457	465
Ashley	48	49	54	51	44	51	56
Ashley Gorge	22	24	28	24	23	21	22
Ashton	30	40	29	28	24	25	21
Ataahua	17	17	17	16	17	19	14
Avoca						9	21
Awaroa	9	8	7				
Aylesbury	22	20	27	29	27	23	25
Balcairn	36	36	38	31	36	37	39
Barrhill	23	22	21	20	20	21	20
Barry's Bay	18	18	20	21	22	22	24
Bealey						5	
Belfast	209	208	117	111	106	186	109
Belfast Side			84				
Birdling's Flat	13	12	16	12	11	10	12
Broadfield	31	31	28	29	27	31	32
Brookside	37	39	32	35	40	41	37
Broomfield	25	25	30	28	25	27	38
Burnham	22	21	28	28	31	17	21

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Bushside	11	13	15	15	16		
Camla	12	8					
Carew	18	21	20	20	16	17	24
Carleton	39	40	37	28	21	24	29
Charing Cross	12	12	13	13	13	19	22
Chertsey	37	37	33	41	40	37	34
Chorlton	15	19	19	17	14	13	13
Clarkville	47	50	50	45	48	49	49
Conway Flat	7	6					
Cooper's Creek	32	30	30	29	29	32	33
Courtenay	15	12	12	9	10	13	16
Culverden	38	36	36	41	43	40	41
Cust	70	77	82	86	83	83	92
Darfield DHS	53	55	31	32	30	38	24
Domett	25	21	20	23	26	30	31
Dorie	18	20	17	21	22	21	22
Doyleston	77	69	70	66	66	60	63
Dromore	30	27	19	16	16	9	14
Dunsandel	59	59	53	65	62	67	65
Duvauchelle's Bay	36	42	46	46	36	33	30
Ealing	13	18	21	18	25	30	32
Eiffelton	21	17	24	22	26	33	32
Elgin	16	17	16	14	14	14	15
Ellesmere	17	18	21	29	28	32	33
Ethelton	3	4					
Eyreton	22	23	23	22	19	18	21
Eyreton West	41	45	39	40	38	46	49
Fairton	54	60	58	62	56	57	68

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Fernside	52	56	57	57	55	52	47
Flea Bay	3	3	3			4	
Flemington	12	15	18	15	11	15	17
French Farm	15	12	13	12	9[1]		
Fyvie	16	16	13	7	7	9	13
Gebbie's Valley	18	22	20	27	23	24	23
German Bay[2]	27	30					
Glen Kowhai	18	17	14	11	16	18	14
Glenroy	16	19	23	19	21	19	18
Glentunnel	109	110	87	98	86	89	87
Governor's Bay	13	12	16	17	21	21	25
Greendale	39	41	42	41	41	37	30
Greenpark	50	52	49	48	46	49	58
Greenstreet	22	17	18	17	19	17	18
Greta				4	3		
Greta Valley	18	22	22	22	18	14	16
Halkett	18	21	25	25	25	26	29
Hampstead	311	322	332	337	329	326	324
Hanmer Plains	28	26	34				
Hanmer Springs				38	42	40	50
Hapuku	33	26	24	28	28	24	24
Highbank	48	58	56	59	69	52	56
Hind's	66	71	73	68	57	56	56
Homebush	17	21	22	21	17	16	16
Hororata	49	54	59	68	72	81	82

[1] Closed 31 December 1918

[2] Name changed to Takamatua

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Horsley Downs	39	32	33	30	32	25	44
Hundalee	7	11	13	12	10	9	12
Huntingdon					16	22	25
Hurunui	10	11	10	11	11	11	15
Irwell	47	46	40	40	42	45	43
Kaiapoi DHS	410	389	372	369	385	387	367
Kaiapoi Island	18	20	18	16	14	11	9
Kaikoura Suburb	84	65	60	65	67	68	83
Kaikoura Town	99	111	98	85	94	124	122
Killinchy	43	45	47	49	48	53	64
Kimberley	28	27	29	29	27	25	22
Kirikiri	27	28	27	23	24	20	24
Kirwee	28	28	32	28	40	43	35
Kowai Bush	19	21	22	21	13	14	18
Kukupa	9	7	8	8	11	9	8
Ladbrooks	44	44	44	43	42	42	36
Laghmor					25	29	31
Lake Coleridge	15	10	7				
Lakeside	33	31	34	41	43	49	53
Lauriston	42	44	50	56	53	50	53
Le Bon's Bay	39	41	40	35	33	34	37
Leeston	79	64	76	76	74	90	87
Leithfield	36	39	39	34	32	28	32
Lincoln DHS	101	98	76	77	81	92	81
Lismore	18	21	29	35	42	38	38
Little Akaloa	19	21	20	20	21	18	19
Little River	39	50	49	53	54	51	59
Loburn	37	40	48	50	49	44	42

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Loburn North	36	30	25	30	22	26	26
Long Bay	7	5	5				
Longbeach	24	22	21	23	16	14	14
Lowcliffe	21	21	28	31	30	34	39
Lyndhurst	36	42	47	42	42	49	64
Lyndon	13	13	14	11	10	9	10
Lynnford	19	21	24	21	21	13	13
Lynton Downs		9	12	11	11	10	15
Lyttelton DHS	476	489	447	422	404	434	423
Lyttelton Heads				5	6	6	
Lyttelton West	173	174	180	173	162	163	169
Mackenzie	101	98	110	91	86	89	94
Mason's Flat	24	25	30	30	29	37	37
Mayfield	49	54	55	63	66	70	63
Mead	25	26	25	27	28	31	26
Medbury	25	22	17	15	18	22	23
Methven	88	106	126	129	146	151	164
Motukarara	22	22	21	23	25	25	24
Mt Grey Downs	26	27	27	25	21	15	14
Mt Somers	44	40	41	50	53	31	49
Newland	9	10	11	15	14	16	17
Ohoka	69	62	53	54	51	58	82
Okain's Bay	43	47	42	45	48	45	46
Okuku	12	11	12	15	14	10	12
Okuti Valley	9	10	14	16	17	22	17
Omihi	39	48	56	35	36	41	39
Ouruhai	29	38	42	40	53	52	49
Overdale	11	13	16	19	19	21	20

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Oxford DHS			109	103	106	116	96
Oxford East	125	135					
Oxford West	59	65	56	48	48	59	58
Parnassus					12	11	15
Pendarves	14	18	21	22	24	16	16
Pigeon Bay	14	16	23	19	18	16	17
Port Levy	9	10		8	12	14	26
Port Robinson	11	12	10	11	7	5	
Prebbleton	73	75	82	82	81	79	90
Puaha	36	34	34	32	39	40	41
Rakaia Little						12	17
Rakaia South	109	121	123	116	122	130	135
Rangiora	242	265	268	278	282	282	294
Rapaki	15	15	15	16	14	14	14
Riverside	15	18	15	13	8		
Robinson's Bay	12	11	10	10	12	10	14
Rokeby	23	26	27	33	36	43	45
Rolleston	39	50	43	42	45	43	43
Rotherham	37	45	47	47	46	43	47
Ruapuna	27	25	20	22	25	29	30
Russell's Flat	15	13	16	17	21	19	25
Saltwater Creek	23	23	24	22	24	25	26
Scargill	16	14	12	13	14	16	21
Seafield	13	9	10	13	9	9	13
Seaview	13	13	14	16	15	12	
Sedgemere	21	28	25	21	23	26	23
Sefton	69	63	57	49	52	59	58
Selwyn	18	15	9	13	14	17	26

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Southbridge DHS	168	168	172	141	140	155	168
Southbrook	132	129	132	131	153	155	166
South Malvern	31	34	34	28	30	39	32
Spencerville	12	8	9	10	9	9	11
Spotswood	33	33	36	41	31	36	31
Springbank	14	10	10	10	9	10	13
Springburn	30	31	27	36	41	61	58
Springfield	44	43	44	44	39	38	45
Springston	72	68	60	61	63	56	61
Springston Sth	42	48	43	48	45	49	51
Summerhill	15	10	11	15	15	17	23
Swannanoa	33	31	35	33	28	25	29
Tai Tapu	87	87	74	75	78	76	80
Takamatua[3]			23	19	24	22	27
Teddington	15	19	18	18	21	20	25
Templeton	105	116	132	127	124	136	138
Te Pirita	14	15	14	14	10	10	10
The Peaks	15	13	11	11	16	13	16
Tinwald	141	169	169	183	171	180	190
Tormore		9	9				
Tuahiwi	31	36	33	31	24	25	27
View Hill		22	25	27	36	24	16
Virginia	6						
Waddington	71	85	86	80	84	85	67
Waiau	60	72	81	78	75	72	65
Waikari	43	42	51	51	61	70	76

[3] Formerly German Bay

TABLE SEVEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1914 - 1920							
SCHOOL NAMES	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Waikuku	33	42	41	42	41	45	48
Wainui	24	19	16	10	15	18	23
Waipara				29	29	33	29
Wairewa	15	14	14	10	9	13	12
Wakanui	29	30	27	30	36	40	42
Warren Estate			12	15	15	15	14
Weedons	25	26	27	28	33	30	31
Westerfield	37	42	51	48	41	39	38
West Melton	28	25	26	28	33	39	42
Whiterock		14	12	13	13	14	15
Willowby	41	39	36	41	38	37	37
Winchmore	18	16	12	13	18	22	31
Winslow	44	29	27	21	21	22	25
Woodend	96	102	95	91	86	89	93
Woodstock	9						
Yaldhurst	42	43	45	40	43	68	51

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Akaroa DHS	135	134	131	122	105	95	100
Albury	57			63	57	56	55
Alford Forest	25	26	33	38	36	34	36
Allenton	205	201	221	236	213	220	234
Amberley	93	92	92	96	94	86	88
Anama	29	21	24	16	15	18	13
Annat	43	38	39	38	31	24	26
Ashburton East			407	418	424	415	415
Ashburton Forks	19	17	16	17	19	21	21
Ashburton Main	526	484	450	423	433	423	428
Ashley	60	55	46	50	39	44	40
Ashley Gorge	28	17	18	15			
Ashton	23	14	14	18	18	18	14
Ataahua	16	20	23	12	15	20	20
Avoca	16	16	13	7	7	9	10
Aylesbury	28	22	28	24	29	27	27
Balcairn	58	40	46	43	42	38	36
Barrhill	13	11	14	22	23	22	24
Barry's Bay	34	29	29	33	31	23	21
Belfast Main	109	114	116	99	110	133	132
Belfast Side		89	90				
Birdling's Flat	10	11	14	11	9	11	11
Broadfield	40	2	2	26	26	30	33
Brookside	31	45	46	48	55	51	49
Broomfield	42	28	24	18	20	21	22
Burnham	28	28	30	30	32	20	25
Bushside				21	32	40	38

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Carew	22	19	23	17	20	25	24
Carleton	33	28	26	24			
Charing Cross	32	25	18	14	18	16	18
Charwell Forks	9	10	7	8	10	9	10
Chertsey	40	37	40	38	41	32	29
Chorlton	15	13	11	9	8	10	11
Clarkville	57	54	55	51	43	45	46
Coldstream		13	14	14	14	18	17
Cooper's Creek	24	27	24	20			
Courtenay	16	12	14	13	11	12	12
Culverden	47	49	53	51	55	55	55
Cust	98	92	81	85	82	72	64
Darfield	25	37	37	43	47	53	59
Domett	29	22	19	17	19	17	14[1]
Dorie	24	15	17	18	23	29	29
Doyleston	81	67	75	75	66	67	64
Dromore	22	18	22	15	17	19	14
Dunsandel	73	73	70	64	67	62	69
Duvauchelle's Bay	31	32	31	28	29	25	23
Ealing	42	37	42	37	36	26	21
Eiffelton	51	39	40	42	51	49	48
Elgin	17	15	15	14	18	18	15
Ellesmere	39	47	15	33	33	30	28
Eyreton	21	25	22	25	21	15	18
Eyreton West	56	49	52	52	57	55	52
Fairton	77	62	66	75	73	67	64

[1] Consolidated with McKenzie

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Fernside	65	57	53	61	51	56	52
Flemington	13	13	15	18	17	17	19
Fyvie	8	8	9	7	7	5	
Gebbie's Valley	26	21	17	13	12	9	9
Glen Kowhai	24	14	14	15	9	15	17
Glenroy	21	19	15	20	24	27	24
Glentunnel	87	73	76	15	62	55	57
Gore Bay					11	11	12
Gough's Bay							8
Governor's Bay	24	24	22	21	25	18	21
Grange Road					11		11
Greendale	33	30	37	35	36	39	40
Greenpark	66	56	60	54	57	56	61
Greenstreet	23	21	24	30	29	30	26
Greta Valley	15	12	12	16	14	14	13
Halkett	23	23	23	26	27	27	27
Hampstead	413	369[2]					
Hanmer Springs	49	44	45	48	55	51	54
Hapuku	47	42	36	28	29	30	25
Highbank	63	56	49	47	48	53	45
Hind's	60	52	54	61	62	58	54
Hinetewai Native				12	16	12	9
Homebush	25	12	9	10	17	16	18
Hororata	77	67	67	63	59	59	61
Horsley Downs	50	43	44	42	46	54[3]	

[2] Changed to Ashburton East

[3] Consolidate into Hawarden

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Hundalee	14						
Huntingdon	23	20	23	23	22		
Hurunui	20	21	23	22	21	22	
Irwell	54	51	52	54	51	45	51
Kaiapoi DHS	421	371	386	372	362	362	366
Kaiapoi Island	5	12	11	13	13	10	11
Kaikoura Suburb	65	57	56	46	49	54	56
Kaikoura Town	155	132	128	137	149	158	151
Kaituna Valley				10			
Killinchy	72	67	66	66	63	68	74
Kimberley	24	14	11	28	26	21	18
Kirikiri	16	13	12	8	13	13	16
Kirwee	46	40	37	36	47	45	44
Kowai Bush	19	13	8	9	13	17	19
Kukupa	9	11	9	10	12	11	13
Ladbrooks	38	37	31	34	38	39	39
Laghmor	25	27	27	30	29	28	28
Lakeside	67	59	52	45	44	33	28
Lauriston	63	55	50	49	52	49	43
Le Bon's Bay	41	30	29	31	30	25	25
Leeston	101	100	85	95	104	99	105
Leithfield	36	28	24	27	28	24	22
Lincoln	98	85	85	73	73	75	72
Lismore	38	22	21	17	16	15	13
Little Akaloa	24	20	20	14	12	12	11
Little River	73	67	77	77	73	66	69
Loburn	47	40	36	33	33	30	36
Loburn North	29	20	15	15	23	25	21

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Long Bay Road					6	6	7
Longbeach	19	16	17	19	18	11	12
Lowcliffe	61	48	46	43	45	37	43
Lyndhurst	67	62	68	69	71	67	65
Lyndon	11	10		7	10	11	10
Lynnford	15	16	18	19	16	15	15
Lynton Downs	21	15	14	11	14	11	11
Lyttelton DHS	469	425	413	408	408	393	380
Lyttelton Heads			5	6			
Lyttelton West	204	186	181	175	176	172	169
Mackenzie	99	105	96	82	87	90	95
Mangamaunu			18	24	24	16	13
Maronan	21	24	22	28	26	24	22
Mason's Flat	38	36	39	37	37	30[4]	
Mayfield	66	64	58	70	64	60	62
Mead	29	25	21	27	22	19	21
Medbury	17	14	14	15	19	17[5]	
Methven	177	191	215	208	222	207	205
Montalto			13	13	13	17	16
Motukarara	26	25	23	26	23	18	21
Mt Grey Downs	10	16	12	16	19	16	17
Mt Somers	50	56	57	59	61	51	51
Newland	13	15	12	10	9	11	11
Oaro		11	12	10	13	14	16
Ohoka	82	80	64	70	74	65	63

[4] Consolidated into Hawarden

[5] Consolidated into Hawarden

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Okain's Bay	36	36	43	52	41	38	40
Okuku	10	12	13	14	14	12	12
Okuti Valley	19	18	15	13	10	10	10
Omihi	37	36	30	25	28	33	30
Ouruhai	50	53	66	57	59	54	45
Overdale	22	25	22	22	19	17	25
Oxford DHS	106	109	129	121	173	183	91
Oxford West	48	53	49	51[6]			
Parnassus	23	29	24	18	21	24	24
Pendarves	20	21	23	21	24	21	23
Pigeon Bay	15	15	20	21	25	27	25
Port Levy	22	25	22	17	12	14	14
Prebbleton	92	83	81	81	88	88	92
Puaha	41	43	46	44	42	40	38
Puhi Puhi		6	6	6	9	9	13
Rakaia				125	124	124	132
Rakaia Little	14	23	7	24	24	22	17
Rakaia South	132	130	121[7]				
Rangiora	325	339	350	362	367	357	366
Rangiora DHS							
Rapaki	13	12	13	13	11	13	12
Riverside				11	13	15	18
Robinson's Bay	17	15	17	17	18	22	20
Rokeby	50	50	47	46	50	49	51
Rolleston	43	30	20	22	23	24	24

[6] Consolidated into Oxford

[7] Name changed to Rakaia

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Rotherham	47	52	64	65	56	59	56
Ruapuna	33	37	40	45	47	41	43
Russell's Flat	22	19	18	16	19	21	17
Saltwater Creek	18	21	20	17	19	20	17
Scargill	21	26	19	18	25	23	24
Seafield	14	14	14	16	21	21	23
Sedgemere	22	23	24	23	24	19	22
Sefton	54	53	56	49	68	67	65
Selwyn	28	29	32	26	29	28	26
Southbridge DHS	173	171	175	156	172	177	180
Southbrook	155	152	137	119	104	95	96
South Malvern	30	32	37	27	36	31	26
Spencerville	10	21	18	11	11	10	9
Spotswood	35	37	40	35	40	32	24
Springbank	11	17	22	19	18	18	18
Springburn	60	60	59	45	40	33	33
Springfield	44	47	44	39	52	46	55
Springston	66	74	68	59	68	69	66
Springston Sth	55	48	45	42	36	30	28
Summerhill	22	17	17	18	16	18	17
Swannanoa	20	20	17	15	17	17	13
Tai Tapu	72	65	70	77	70	63	64
Takamatua	21	21	21	15	16	15	17
Teddington	28	26	22	18	17	18	21
Templeton	138	140	137	134	133	128	125
Te Pirita	9	8	9	7	15	15	15
The Peaks	18	15	16	14	17	17[8]	

[8] Consolidated into Hawarden

TABLE EIGHT : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1921 - 1927							
SCHOOL NAMES	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
Tinwald	218	205	203	211	201	202	205
Tuahiwi	26	23	21	18	15	24	21
View Hill	18	18	21	24	23	23	21
Waddington	67	61	55	54	49	43	44
Waiau	72	73	71	62	66	70	71
Waikari	84	83	76	74	74	67	69
Waikuku	42	47	48	43	43	39	37
Wainui	23	23	21	26	25	23	20
Waipara	31	33	36	31	36	30	33
Wairewa	8	12	12	13	12	13	14
Wakanui	52	46	44	38	37	34	30
Warren Estate	17	21	21	17	21	17	12
Weedons	25	28	28	16	17	25	33
Westerfield	38	36	32	24	23	23	26
West Melton	44	42	42	29	30	32	31
Whiterock	11	9	13	9	5	6	10
Willowby	43	47	42	45	46	46	45
Winchmore	29	30	30	20	27	22	14
Winslow	17	15	20	18	22	23	22
Woodend	100	102	102	117	125	122	128
Woodstock		51	48				
Yaldhurst	49	51	48	52	60	58	59

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Akaroa DHS	89	85	94	89	88	83	70
Albury	55	52	48	47	39	30	31
Alford Forest	37	37	36	29	26	25	21
Allenton	233	220	211	223	245	245	258
Amberley	102	105	109	97	106	101	93
Anama	13	12	10	12	17	16	18
Annat	27	24	21	22	26	29	31
Ashburton East	473	443	472	486	433	406	448
Ashburton Forks	22	19	16	15	12	10	10
Ashburton Main	452	460	430	434	486	430	385
Ashley	44	42	38	41	40	36	36
Ashton	14	14	13	14	12	10	9
Ataahua	17	17	14	10			
Avoca	5						
Awaroa		11		18	17	16	17
Aylesbury	20	22	24	24	22	22	18
Balcairn	27	28					
Barrhill	23	25	24	25	25	27	31
Barry's Bay	26	26	27	23	19	21	23
Belfast	144	133	211	140	136	122	106
Birdling's Flat	13	12	11	12	12	12	10
Broadfield	27	32	32	32	33	23	22
Brookside	55	52	54	57	52	49	48
Broomfield	24	21	13	17	17	18	17
Burnham	25	27	33	32	30	27	26
Bushside	38	37	31	25	30	26	23
Carew	23	25	30	29	26	26	24

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Charing Cross	15	14	13	10	14	12	10
Charwell Forks	8	7					
Chertsey	30	29	27	25	23	22	22
Cheviot				154	162	145	145
Chorlton	11	12	11	10	11	10	10
Clarkville	38	39	39	40	40	40	38
Courtenay	19	18	17	17	16	16	12
Culverden	79	81	78	76	81	70	61
Cust	56	57	52	53	52	52	54
Darfield	61	66	66	75	69	67	57
Dorie	33	29	24	25	26	26	25
Doyleston	52	51	48	48	56	55	54
Dromore	13	10	11	15	20	17	13
Dunsandel	62	65	60	58	56	55	45
Duvauchelle's Bay	25	26	26	23	24	24	24
Ealing	14	21	21	21	27	29	25
Eiffelton	54	53	58	65	83	77	81
Elgin	15	12	9	10	13	12	10[1]
Ellesmere	19	19	19	27	30	24	24
Ethelton		7	9	5	5	6	6
Eyreton	26	24	22	21	18	18	22
Eyreton West	60	58	60	58	57	47	45
Fairton	66	68	68	64	57	48	47
Fernside	48	46	42	45	44	45	40
Flemington	20	21	23	13	12	13	12
Gebbie's Valley	7	7	9	5[2]			

[1] Consolidated into Ashburton East

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Glen Kowhai	18	19	16	19	16	12	10
Glenroy	27	26	25	23	26	27	30
Glentunnel	53	53	51	53	64	66	66
Gore Bay	15	14	15	20	19	17	16
Gough's Bay	3						
Governor's Bay	20	17	18	27	24	17	23
Grange Road	11	9	6		7	7	7
Greendale	54	58	57	58	59	55	54
Greenpark	56	54	53	43	45	39	39
Greenstreet	22	23	27	25	22	21	22
Greta Valley	9	9	10	13	14	13	15
Halkett	28	27	30	30	31	25	26
Hanmer Springs	54	51	51	46	53	43	41
Hapuku	24	25	30	33	36	33	32
Hawarden	164	171	177	175	174	162	164
Highbank	51	49	46	41	29	25	26
Hind's	82	81	81	83	84	83	83
Hinetewai Native	7	9	9				
Homebush	15	14	17	21	24	24	26
Hororata	62	59	58	59	65	61	56
Irwell	58	52	47	40	38	29	23
Kaiapoi	337	332	330	335	330	308	315
Kaiapoi Island	13	15	26	29	33	27	26
Kaikoura Suburb	49	51	52	56	53	51	47
Kaikoura Town	169	165	152	153	150	146	127
Kaituna Valley		6	6	9	6	6	7

[2] Consolidated into Tai Tapu

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Killinchy	66	59	52	45	39	38	38
Kimberley	20	21	24	23	23	23	19
Kirikiri	19	18	16	15	11	14	13
Kirwee	43	42	37	36	40	37	34
Kowai Bush	28	26	25	25	24	22	21
Kukupa	15	15	18	18	19	20	21
Ladbrooks	43	43	40	38	43	45	46
Laghmor	23	21	18	18	17	12	12
Lakeside	27	28	39	42	45	51	51
Lauriston	55	57	58	60	56	39	39
Le Bon's Bay	20	26	28	27	27	26	28
Leeston	93	105	112	114	124	125	129
Lees Valley		3	2	3	3	2	3
Leithfield	21	17	17	36	30	27	24
Lincoln	72	66	72	77	70	61	58
Lismore	18	18	21	21	21	16	21
Little Akaloa	13	12	11	13	14	11	13
Little River	66	75	85	85	85	77	73
Loburn	34	31	30	26	36	36	28
Loburn North	23	25	28	28	29	28	31
Long Bay Road	6	6	6		6	5	
Longbeach	13	13	10				
Lowcliffe	63	65	67	64	58	56	57
Lyndhurst	81	77	83	89	101	95	85
Lyndon	6	5	4	4			
Lynnford	15	17	22	23	19	19	19
Lynton Downs	12	11	7	6	6	5	4
Lyttelton	367	367	341	339	334	311	299

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Lyttelton West	151	147	141	147	149	139	127
Mackenzie	141	138	137[3]				
Mangamaunu	20	21	21	15	24	24	25
Maronan	21	25	24	23	28	28	23
Marsden		9	9				
Mayfield	65	64	60	56	65	62	62
Mead	18	21		14	16	14	13
Menzies Bay				5	4	4	5
Methven	226	227	231	233	227	209	207
Montalto	16	15	16	16	14	14	14
Motukarara	17	21	17	20[4]			
Mt Grey Downs	19	18	18	21	18	15	14
Mt Somers	53	59	66	64	56	48	46
Newland	10	10	11	11			
Oaro	10	9	9	10	10	11	12
Ohoka	78	74	63	64	68	65	57
Okain's Bay	40	39	38	33	36	36	39
Okuku	13	13	9	13	14	14	13
Okuti Valley	9	10	14	16	15	13	15
Omihi	24	25	26	27	27	25	22
Ouruhai	45	47	40	30	28	32	31
Overdale	19	21	22	21	18	16	12
Oxford DHS	156	155	84	82	222	203	172
Parnassus	25	25	24	62	59	37	36
Pendarves	25	24	24	21	22	21	20

[3] Name changed to Cheviot

[4] Consolidated into Tai Tapu

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Pigeon Bay	26	24	27	25	27	27	29
Port Levy	15	13	15	14	13	16	21
Prebbleton	97	96	95	91	86	89	85
Puaha	33	29	19	17	16	16	18
Puhi Puhi	22	22	23	22	25	23	24
Rakaia Little	16	15	16	13	12	13	11
Rakaia	143	133	126	128	124	116	121
Rangiora	359	361	371	362	372	344	335
Rapaki	8	9			9	12	14
Riverside	21	17	19	21	18	17	13
Robinson's Bay	17	16	14	15	16	14	14
Rokeby	54	52	52	49	42	36	38
Rolleston	22	25	29	28	24	22	21
Rotherham	47	45	42	42	43	36	28
Ruapuna	37	36	36	27	28	26	27
Russell's Flat	22	21	21	20	17	17	18
Saltwater Creek	12	12	9	9	9	10	15
Scargill	23	21	22	22	28	28	33
Seafield	24	25	27	28	30	25	18
Sedgemere	23	22	23	28	26	24	22
Sefton	77	82	91	107	113	104	114
Selwyn	23	23	22	21	20	18	23
Snowdale						5	5
Southbridge	169	163	161	165	169	163	146
Southbrook	93	91	86	75	65	61	57
South Malvern	20	21	21	18	17	15	13
Spencerville	7	9	13	14	7	6	13
Spotswood	20	20	22[5]				

[5] Consolidated into Cheviot

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Springbank	23	23	24	25	23	21	17
Springburn	49	51	48	48	51	44	43
Springfield	54	51	55	56	56	53	52
Springston	65	63	73	73	65	61	54
Springston Sth	35	36	41	48	44	40	37
Summerhill	17	18	19	19	18	19	19
Swannanoa	8	8	9	11	10	11	14
Tai Tapu	57	60	62	63	87	81	75
Takamatua	19	19	19	21	18	15	14
Teddington	19	18	17	18	13	10	12
Templeton	114	104	101	93	93	93	99
Te Pirita	7	7	10	11	14	15	14
Tinwald	198	182	168	163	168	161	146
Tormore		7	9	11	12	15	18
Tuahiwi	14	16	17	21	24	26	26
View Hill	25	28	25	21	23	23	21
Waddington	51	47	47	47	53	54	58
Waiau	66	66	69	63	60	58	56
Waikari	62	66	70	67	66	63	66
Waikuku	32	31	30	34	36	31	35
Wainui	18	18	17	19	18	19	18
Waipara	38	39	39	38	30	36	37
Wairewa	22	21	22	18	18	14	13
Wakanui	38	41	40	42	41	40	40
Warren	12	14	14	14	14	15	14
Weedons	24	25	26	25	22	23	24

TABLE NINE : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1928 - 1934							
SCHOOL NAMES	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Westerfield	39	39	38	38	37	38	36
West Melton	24	24	29	30	32	32	32
Whiterock	8	9					
Willowby	55	56	52	47	47	46	46
Windwhistle							16
Winslow	14	16	18	21	21	16	16
Woodend	115	121	122	121	126	116	113
Yaldhurst	52	46	42	48	46	32	33

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Akaroa	66	65	90	81	87	91	
Albury	36	40	51	68	65	71	
Alford Forest	22	17	14	14	10	11	
Allenton	243	234	254	223	222	235	
Amberley	102	101	100	91	84	61	
Anama	21	26	24	28	32	39	
Aniseed Creek[1]			80	103	84	34	
Annat	32	36	41	33	29	27	
Ashburton East	418	440	436	408	394	371	
Ashburton Forks	11	14	15	14	15	17	
Ashburton Main	379	385	397	375	383	401	
Ashley	36	33	17	16	22	14	
Ashton	7	7[2]					
Awaroa	17	18	19	15	16	12	
Aylesbury	18	19	21	20	12	12	
Barrhill	33	29	20[3]				
Barry's Bay	23	25	22	17	19	21	
Belfast Main	98	115	126	128	197	215	
Birdling's Flat	7	9	13	15	17	14	
Broadfield	19	19	21	18	17	15	
Brookside	48	50	49	39	32	36	
Broomfield	13	17	18	21	17	17	
Burnham	25	23	23	21	25	20	

[1] Opened 1 March 1937. Built by the Public Work Department for the Main Trunk Railway

[2] School closed and pupils sent to Flemington

[3] Consolidated with Lauriston

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Bushside	21	19	19	16	20	13	
Carew	24	26	29	24	24	17	
Charing Cross	10	10	13	16	14	12	
Chertsey	25	29	33	30	28	31	
Cheviot	144	151	150	150	151	153	
Chorlton	12	14	14	9	9	8	
Clarkville	31	27	13	16	14	16	
Claverley			21	17			
Conway Flat		12	16	16	30	31	
Courtenay	15	15	17	20	22	24	
Coutts Island				19	16	16	
Culverden	53	53	56	55	57	45	
Cust	51	55	59	49	45	42	
Darfield	59	65	69	59	56	54	
Dorie	23	21	15	14	8		
Doyleston	49	52	45[4]				
Dromore	12[5]						
Dunsandel	44	46	61	68	71	76	
Duvauchelle's Bay	21	19	16	14	17	19	
Ealing	24	28	23	23	22		
Eiffelton	99	103	99	95	94	100	
Elgin	9	8	7				
Ellesmere	23	23	24	20	18	17	
Eyreton	23	18	16	19	20	18	
Eyreton West	42	41	41	36	31	28	

[4] Consolidated into Leeston

[5] Consolidated into Fairton

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Fairton	40	32	43	38	42	50	
Fernside	41	43	41	39	25	32	
Flemington	12	14	23	25	26	25	
Glen Kowhai	10	12	12	13	10	11	
Glenroy	32	34	34	32	27	29	
Glentunnel	64	67	58	54	55	55	
Gore Bay	17	15	14	17	15	9	
Governor's Bay	22	20	20	15	19	21	
Grange Road	10	9	8	5	6	5	
Greendale	55	51	49	42	34	35	
Greendale Main						46	
Greenpark	40	43	48	49	49		
Greenstreet	21	20					
Greta Valley	16	18	20	15	16	10	
Halkett	24	24	26	21	19	17	
Hanmer Springs	37	38	38	36	42	38	
Hapuku	22	19	12	14	16	13	
Hawarden	173	176	172	162	164	159	
Highbank	27	28	28	29	31	30	
Hind's	78	73	82	95	120	129	
Holmes Bay	7	11	11	9	5	6	
Homebush	26	23	24	18	19	18	
Hororata	59	62	60	54	59	62	
Irwell	25	27	30[6]				
Kaiapoi	285	305	291	270	275	267	
Kaiapoi Island	30	30	20				

[6] Consolidated into Leeston

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Kaikoura Suburb	52	49	40	39	42	42	
Kaikoura Town	128	140	129	139	183	195	
Kaituna Valley	9	6	5	4[7]			
Killinchy	31	30	34	31	30	29	
Kimberley	17	18	17	15	15	15	
Kirikiri	12	13	15[8]				
Kirwee	38	36	29	28	31	29	
Kowai Bush	22	22	24	17	18	15	
Kukupa	19	16	15	12	9	9	
Ladbrooks	39	37	35	28	31	35	
Laghmor	9	10	10	10	11	7	
Lake Coleridge		17	16	14	12	11	
Lakeside	52	47	42	31	25		
Lauriston	38	31	38	39	42	48	
Le Bon's Bay	22	17	14	14	12	13	
Leeston	111	118	118	171	188	192	
Lees Valley	2[9]						
Leithfield	25	26	21	27	23	16	
Lincoln	61	70	70	65	77	77	
Lismore	18	15	15	12	14	14	
Little Akaloa	11	11	10	13	13	10	
Little River	72	72	68	63	54	43	
Loburn	23	26	22	22	26	32	
Loburn North	31	33	32	28	23	17	

[7] Consoldiated into Tai Tapu

[8] Consolidated into Oxford

[9] Consolidated into Snowdale

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Lowcliffe	62	63	61	56	59	58	
Lyndhurst	83	89	80	75	90	91	
Lynnford	19	20	20	20	17	14	
Lynton Downs	5	5					
Lyttelton	291	278	268	260	277	281	
Lyttelton West	125	133	135	120	121	118	
Mangamaunu	29	41	44				
Maronan	23	23[10]					
Mayfield	66	68	67	69	64		
Mead	15	11	12	15	17		
Menzies Bay	5	5	6	4	4	5	
Methven	187	191	203	196	193	182	
Montalto	14	11	19	11	15	17	
Mt Grey Downs	15	15	14	14	14	14	
Mt Somers	47	51	48	36	31	29	
Oaro	11	9	61	103	97	96	
Ohoka	54	53	54	51	55	59	
Okain's Bay	37	32	35	35	42	33	
Okuku	14	14	12	11	17	15	
Okuti Valley	11	10	10	10	14	12	
Omihi	23	25	21	19	23	18	
Ouruhai	25	23	22	23	23	22	
Oxford	166	185	173	174	174	176	
Parnassus	35	34	77	67	33	19	
Pendarves	22	19	21[11]				

[10] Consoldiated into Hind's

[11] Consolidated into Ashburton

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Pigeon Bay	25	22	22	16	15	14	
Port Levy	22	21	19	19	19	15	
Prebbleton	87	89	88	80	79	69	
Puaha	17	19	18	14	15	27[12]	
Puhi Puhi	22	19	10	10[13]			
Rakaia	111	117	118	115	103	95	
Rakaia Little	12	13	18	14[14]			
Rangiora	327	342	326	315	299	302	
Rapaki Native	12	15	18	20	19	17	
Riverside	12	10	9	10	7		
Robinson's Bay	14	11[15]					
Rokeby	31	31	27	30	31	30	
Rolleston	20	21	26	26	25	29	
Rotherham	29	36	36	30	25	24	
Ruapuna	19	22	19	24	21	20	
Russell's Flat	19	18	17	16	15	19	
Saltwater Creek	17	19	21	22	22	22	
Scargill	40	33	25	27	20	18	
Seafield	16	18	16[16]				
Sedgemere	18	18	27	28	31	25	
Sefton	112	105	103	93	92	94	
Selwyn	23[17]						

[12] Consoldiated into Manganaunu

[13] Consoldiated into Manganaunu

[14] Consolidated into Southbridge

[15] Consolidated into Akaroa 23 May 1937

[16] Consolidated into Ashburton East

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Snowdale	7	8	9	10	12	12	
Southbridge	141	139	130	121	133	130	
Southbrook	52	48	48	58	65	77	
South Malvern	10	14	14	11	14	17	
Spencerville	14	14[18]					
Springbank	21	19	16	19	21	23	
Springburn	46	44	44	46	41	50	
Springfield	54	55	53	57	55	52	
Springston	52	47	40	38	37	40	
Springston Sth	42	38	30	27	27	28	
Summerhill	19	19	20	14	10	10	
Swannanoa	15	18	26	21	29	32	
Tai Tapu	73	74	68	69	77	81	
Takamatua	13	10[19]					
Teddington	12	8	9	7	10	8	
Templeton	85	96	91	95	97	102	
Te Pirita	14	17	20	19	18	13	
Tinwald	139	143	147	135	136	139	
Tormore	23	24	23	26	23	20	
Tuahiwi Native	28	28	19	17	25	20	
View Hill	21	20	18	16	14	9	
Waddington	54	57	55	48	56	59	
Waiau	47	46	52	43	46	48	
Waikari	66	67	72	75	76	82	

[17] Consolidated into Dunsandel

[18] Consolidated into Belfast

[19] Consolidated into Akaroa 31 January 1937

TABLE TEN : AVERAGE SCHOOL ATTENDENCES 1935 - 1940							
SCHOOL NAMES	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Waikuku	40	40	42	38	43	46	
Wainui	22	25	28	29	28	25	
Waipara	36	35	39	30	24	30	
Wairewa Native	13	16	14	13	12	9	
Wakanui	41	40	41	40	41	44	
Warren	16	17	21	19	19	21	
Weedons	27	25	21	20	20	21	
Westerfield	29	22	20	17	12	12	
West Melton	29	28	27	20	22	23	
Willowby	40	41	33	31	34	31	
Windwhistle	15	16	17	17	10	7	
Winslow	18	18	16	15	9	8	
Woodend	110	111	103	98	88	89	
Yaldhurst	28	27	31	24	22	24	

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